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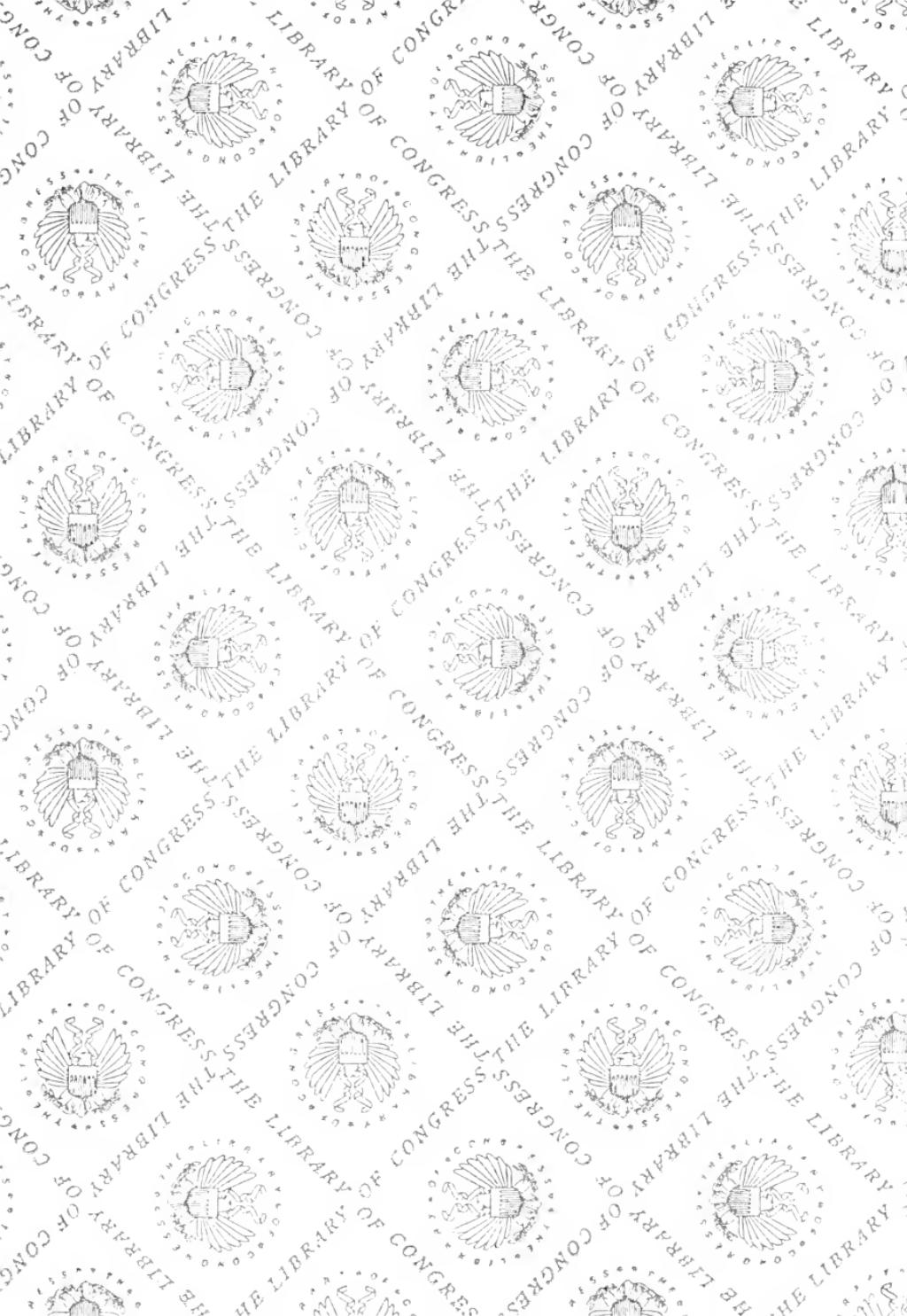
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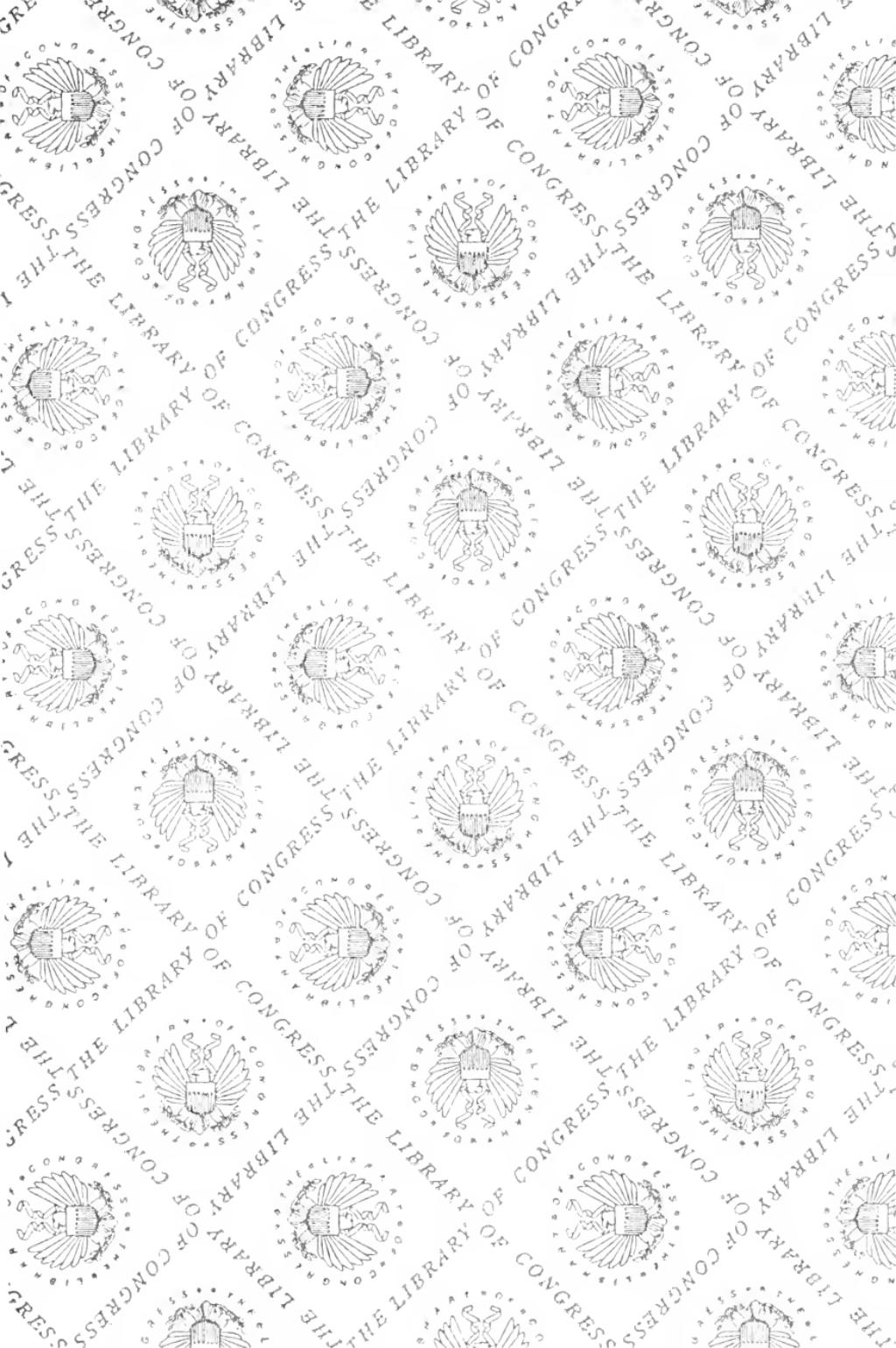
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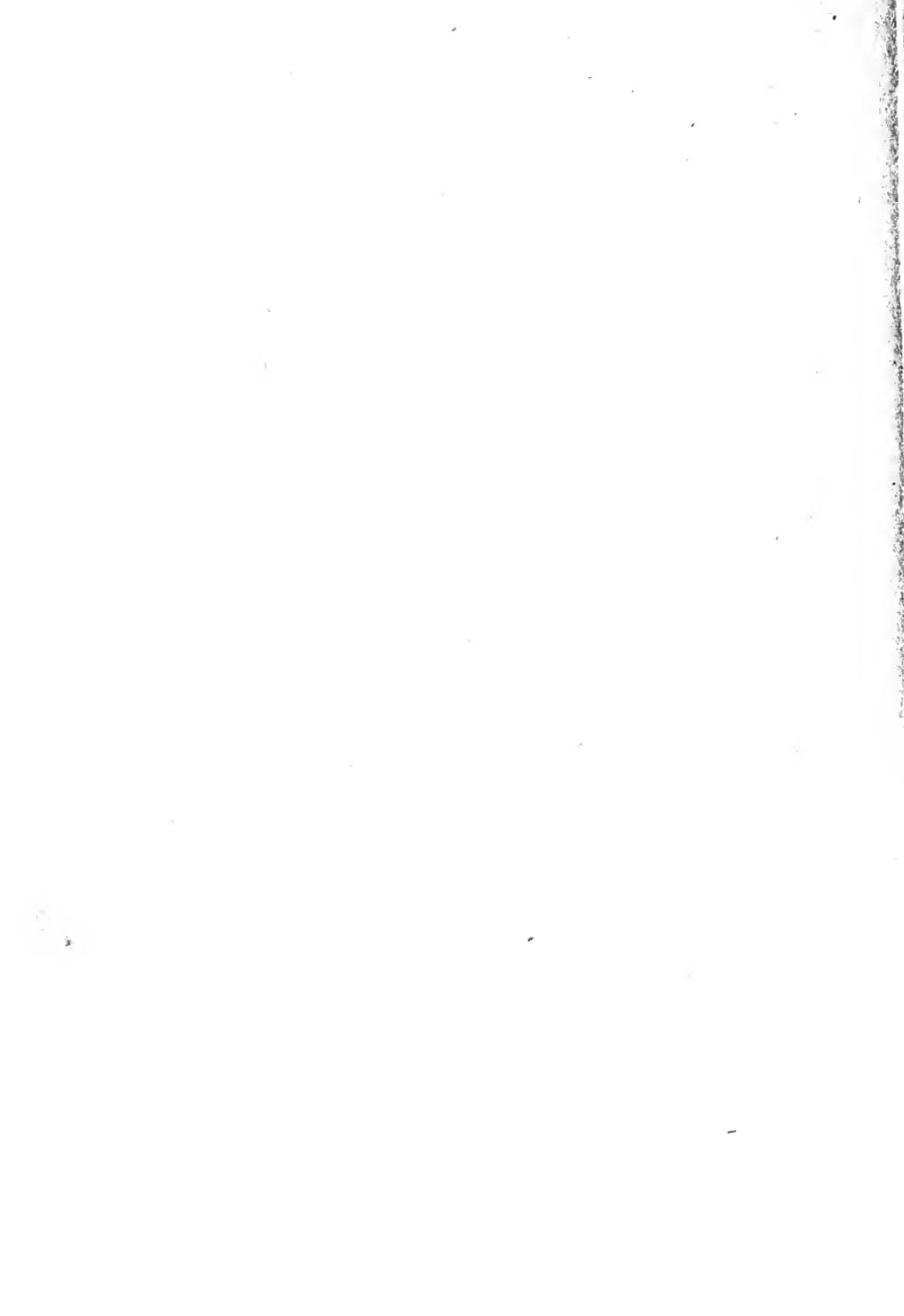
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History Notes

FOR

Eighth Grade





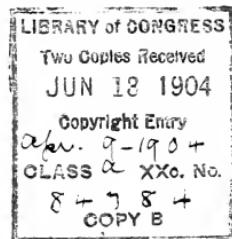
HISTORY NOTES

FOR

EIGHTH GRADE

BY

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History Notes for Eighth Grade.

Causes of the Revolution.

The chief causes of the Revolution were the Navigation Acts, the Stamp Act, the unjust taxation without representation, the Boston Massacre and the Declaration of Independence.

1. Navigation Acts.

England wanted to make money out of her colonies. Various Navigation Acts were passed by Parliament. The Navigation Acts of 1663 forbade the colonies to import or export goods in anything but British or colonial vessels, to send goods to any other country than England, or to import goods from any other country than England. To prevent smuggling, Writs of Assistance were passed, allowing the customs officers to enter any person's house to search for smuggled goods. This angered the colonists greatly. The Navigation Acts ruined New England commerce and aroused their hatred of England.

2. French and Indian War Taxes.

England had spent enormous sums to expel the French from America, and they expected the colonists to aid in paying the expenses of the French and Indian War. The colonists objected to any such taxation, as they had already given troops and money freely in that war.

3. Taxation without Representation.

The English government would not allow the colonies to send representatives to the English Parlia-

ment to aid in making laws, and the colonists claimed that "taxation without representation was tyranny," meaning it was unjust to compel them to pay taxes if they had no share in making the laws.

4. The Stamp Act.

The Stamp Act, passed by Parliament in 1765, levied a tax on all law and business papers used in the colonies. No document or certificate was legal without a stamp. Every newspaper required one. The value of the stamp varied from three pence to ten pounds sterling. Patrick Henry, in the Virginia House of Burgesses, in an eloquent speech denied the right of England to tax the colonies. Immense opposition to the tax arose all over the colonies, and in many places, when the stamps came, the people destroyed them.

The enraged Americans then formed Non-importation Agreements, promising not to import any goods from England. This loss of trade injured English manufacturers so much that Parliament was forced to repeal the Stamp Act in March, 1766. It was chiefly through the efforts of William Pitt that the Stamp Act was repealed.

5. New Taxes.

In 1767, Parliament passed a bill, taxing tea, paint, paper, glass and lead imported into the American colonies. A large number of merchants renewed their Non-importation Agreements, and refused to import British goods.

6. Boston Massacre.

King George III. now sent General Gage with two British regiments to Boston. Many quarrels arose between the soldiers and the people. In 1770, a fight oc-

curred between ten soldiers, and a mob of about seven hundred, led by Crispus Attucks, an Indian or a mulatto.

The soldiers fired in self-defence, wounding eight and killing three, one of those killed being Attucks.

The soldiers were tried for murder, and were defended by John Adams and Josiah Quincy. All were set free, though two were branded on the hand for manslaughter.

The effect of the Boston Massacre was to rouse the colonists to fight British oppression.

7. Boston Tea-party.

In 1773, Parliament removed all taxes except the taxes on tea. This tax on tea, of three pence a pound, was retained by the English government to prove its right to tax the colonies. When the tea ships came to Philadelphia and New York, the people would not let them land. At Annapolis, the tea was burned in the harbor. In Boston, they would not let the tea be landed, and the ships with the tea on board stayed nearly three weeks in the harbor. When the landing of the tea could no longer be prevented, a party of about forty citizens, disguised as Indians, emptied the tea-chests into the harbor (December, 1773).

8. First Continental Congress.

The First Continental Congress met in Carpenters' Hall, Philadelphia, in 1774. It consisted of fifty-five delegates, coming from all the colonies except Georgia. It passed a Declaration of Rights, demanding the right of the colonists to levy their own taxes and to make their own local laws in the Colonial Assemblies. It also recommended the stopping of all commercial intercourse with England.

Peyton Randolph, of Virginia, was president of this Congress. Washington, Patrick Henry, Samuel Adams and John Adams were some of the leading members.

9. The Declaration of Independence.

In June, 1776, the Second Continental Congress meeting in Philadelphia, appointed a committee to draw up a Declaration of Independence. This committee consisted of Thomas Jefferson, John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, Roger Sherman and Robert R. Livingston.

Thomas Jefferson wrote the Declaration of Independence almost entirely. It was adopted by the Second Continental Congress in the State House at Philadelphia, on July 4, 1776.

The great Declaration begins as follows:—

“When, in the course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume, among the powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the laws of nature and of nature’s God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights; that among these, are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness.”

After naming the various tyrannical acts of King George III., the Declaration declared “That these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent States; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political

connection between them and the State of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved."

Results of the Revolution.

The Revolution compelled England to make peace, and the treaty was made at Paris in 1783.

By the terms of the treaty the independence of United States was acknowledged. It was granted the following boundaries:—north by Canada, west by the Mississippi River, and south by Florida, which belonged to Spain and extended to Louisiana.

By this war United States won her place among the nations of the world.

The Adoption of a New Form of Government.

(a) Colonial Forms of Government.

The English colonies were all under the control of the government of England, but there were three different kinds of colonial governments, called the Royal or Provincial, the Proprietary and the Charter.

I. **The Royal or Provincial governments** were under the direct control of the king of England. He appointed the governor of the colony and the upper house of the colonial legislature or council. The people elected the members of the lower house. At the beginning of the Revolution, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New York, New Jersey, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina and Georgia were Royal provinces.

II. **The Proprietary form of government** was one in which the king gave to certain individuals, called proprietors, the ownership of the land of a colony and the right to govern it. The proprietor selected the governor and the upper house of the colonial legislature, while the people elected the lower house. Penn-

sylvania, Delaware and Maryland had each a proprietary government at the beginning of the Revolution.

III. A **charter form of government** was one in which the people had the right to govern themselves. The king granted them a document called a charter which gave them certain rights and privileges. The people elected their governor, and also the members of both houses of legislature. This was the best form of government because it gave the most freedom to the colonists. At the **Town Meeting**, held once a year, the men of each town met together and made laws for the town, chose town officers, and made appropriations for various town purposes. This **town system** of New England was excellent training in self-government, as it was a pure democracy.

Connecticut and Rhode Island had each a charter form of government at the Revolution.

The **resemblances** between the three forms of colonial government were:—

1. In each, there was a governor and an Assembly or colonial legislature of two houses.
2. In each the lower house was elected by the people.
3. They all claimed the right to manage their own local affairs.
4. They all had to obey the laws of England.

The **differences** between the three forms were:—

1. In the Provincial form, the people were entirely dependent on the pleasure of the king, as he appointed the governor and the council or upper house.
2. In the Proprietary form, the power was vested in the Proprietor who could appoint the governor and council.

3. In the charter, the power was vested in the people, who elected their own officers and were almost independent.

4. The New England colonies by their Town Meetings developed a spirit of independence, as did Virginia by its House of Burgesses.

(b) **First Attempts of the Colonies at Union.**

Under the colonial forms of government there was little political connection between the various colonies. They all united and acted together in the French and Indian War (1756-63), but when the war ended, the alliance or union ended. The two ideas of local self-government in the colonies and of a union can be seen from the earliest times down to the time when the Constitution of 1787 adopted these two ideas as part of itself.

I. Because the colonies were separated so far from each other in those early days of difficult travel, a union of all was impossible. The first union of some of the colonies was in New England. In 1643, the colonies of Plymouth, Massachusetts, Connecticut and New Haven formed the union called "**The United Colonies of New England**" for protection against the Dutch and the Indians. This union lasted forty years. Its value in general was that it taught the colonists the advantages of union.

II. The next attempt at a formal union was made by the **Albany Convention** at the outbreak of the French and Indian War. In 1754, delegates from the New England Colonies and from Pennsylvania, New York and Maryland, met at Albany, New York, to form a union for protection against the French and Indians. Benjamin Franklin proposed a plan of

union which the Convention adopted, but which the colonies and the king rejected.

By Franklin's plan, there was to be a governor-general for the colonies, appointed by the king; in addition there was to be a council, composed of representatives chosen by the colonial assemblies. The colonies and the king each thought it gave the other too much power.

III. The attempt at union made in 1774 was the meeting of "**The First Continental Congress.**" (See page 3.)

IV. The first union of all the colonies was "**The Second Continental Congress.**"

The Second Continental Congress met in Independence Hall, Philadelphia, in 1775. Its sessions lasted with occasional adjournment till the adoption of the Articles of Confederation in 1781, and during that time it was the head of the government. It was a government of a revolutionary character only, as the country had then no constitution on which the powers of Congress were based. Among its measures were:—

1. It took control of the military operations of the colonies.
2. It voted to raise and equip the American Continental Army, and elected George Washington commander-in-chief.
3. It took measures to pay the expenses of the war.
4. It organized a general post-office.
5. It advised the colonies to each form its own state government.
6. It determined upon a separation from England, and appointed a committee, of which Thomas Jeffer-

son was chairman, to draw up a Declaration of Independence.

7. Congress adopted the Declaration of Independence July 4, 1776, declaring the nation free from England.

8. It appointed a committee to prepare the Articles of Confederation, and adopted these Articles on November 15, 1777.

(c) The Articles of Confederation.

During the Revolution, the colonies had no Constitution, and were bound together only by the fears and by their desire to conquer England. The difficulty of carrying on the Revolution showed Congress the need of a formal union between the states; it also showed the need of a general government with power fixed by law. To form such a government, the Second Continental Congress appointed a committee to prepare the Articles of Confederation, which would state the powers of Congress as a constitution does. Congress adopted these Articles November 15, 1777. They were not to go into effect until ratified by all the states and this did not occur until 1781. In 1781, then, the Articles became the supreme law of United States, so continuing until 1789, when the present Constitution took their place. The Articles of Confederation were the first system under which the colonies all united. They were a great advance on the loose unions that preceded them. John Dickinson did most of the work in drawing up the Articles of Confederation.

The **chief features** of the Articles of Confederation were:—

1. The Confederation was called the United States of America, and was only a league or alliance between the States.
2. The different States were independent and sovereign in almost everything.
3. The legislative department consisted of only one body or house, called Congress, which was composed of not less than two, nor more than seven delegates from each State.
4. Each State had only one vote in Congress.
5. As there was no national judiciary, there were no national courts.
6. There was no executive department or President. When Congress was in session, it was the legislative department and the executive department. When Congress adjourned, executive power was vested in a "Committee of the States," of thirteen members, one from each state.
7. All matters relating to war, finance, intercourse with foreign nations, and disputes between the States were to be under the control of Congress, but no power was given to Congress to enforce these powers.
8. The Articles could not be amended without the consent of all the States.

NOTE.—Compare each of these features with the Constitution treating of that subject.

The great **defects of the Articles of Confederation** were:—

1. Congress could not compel obedience to its own laws, nor punish offenders against its laws.
2. Congress could not compel the raising of a Federal army nor could it compel collection of Federal taxes.

3. Congress had power only to advise and suggest, not to act. The States were almost entirely independent, and obeyed or not as they saw fit.

4. As there was no President of the nation, the laws could not be executed. As there was no Judiciary, the laws could not be interpreted.

5. Since every state must consent before the Articles could be amended, it was extremely difficult to amend any feature in the Articles.

The value of the Articles of Confederation.

The Articles of Confederation were better than no constitution, as they accustomed the people to the idea of a Federal government. They prepared the way for the great Constitution we now have.

(d) The Adoption of the Constitution.

I. Reasons for the Adoption of the Constitution.

There were several causes or circumstances which led to the adoption of the present Constitution.

The people saw the need of a government, strong enough to compel obedience to its laws. The Articles of Confederation were very defective. (Give the five great defects.)

Various troubles had been caused by the weak government. In Massachusetts, in 1786-87, Daniel Shays headed an insurrection to resist the collection of taxes, and soldiers had to be employed to put this revolt down. Quarrels arose between the States about boundaries, and about duties levied by one State on goods brought from others. To keep the Union together at all, people saw the Articles must be revised.

II. Action of the Convention.

A Constitutional Convention, composed of delegates from all the States except Rhode Island, met in In-

dependence Hall, Philadelphia, in 1787, to revise the Articles of Confederation. Among its prominent members were Benjamin Franklin, Alexander Hamilton, James Madison, Robert Morris, Roger Sherman, and Gouverneur Morris. Washington was elected president of the Convention. After some discussion it was seen that it would be impossible to revise the Articles, and it was decided to form a new Constitution.

It took four months to form this Constitution, being completed by the Convention, September 17, 1787. The Constitution gave the Federal government full power to coin money, to form and control an army and a navy, to lay taxes, to make treaties, and to make laws for the nation. It divided the Federal government into three departments, Legislative or lawmaking, Executive or law enforcing, and Judicial or law interpreting, and stated how each of these was to be appointed and what the duties of each were.

It was a difficult work to form this instrument for each man had his own ideas. There were three great plans discussed:—

(1) The Virginia Plan, proposed by James Madison, which made the Federal government supreme. This plan was in the main adopted.

(2) Hamilton's Plan, which would have made the government an aristocracy if that had been adopted.

(3) The New Jersey Plan, which made the State still equal in power to Congress, and which advocated a Congress of one house.

Three great **compromises** were adopted in forming the Constitution. They were as follows:—

(1) Regarding Representation.—To please the small States, the Constitution gave equal representation to

the States in the Senate, as every State, large or small, was allowed two Senators.

To please the large States, representation in the House of Representatives was to be according to the population, so that the State with the greatest population would send the greatest number of Representatives to Congress.

(2) Regarding Slavery.—To please the slave-holding states, three-fifths of the slaves were to be counted in estimating the number of Representatives each State might send to Congress, but in order to pacify the North, slaves were not counted in full.

(3) Regarding Slavery.—To please the South, slaves might be imported up to 1808. To please the North, the Constitution said a tax of ten dollars or less might be laid on each slave imported, and the slave importation must stop in 1808.

III. The Adoption of the Constitution.

The Convention adopted the Constitution September 17, 1787. It was to go into effect when ratified by nine States. Delaware, Pennsylvania and Maryland ratified it in 1787. The next year seven other States ratified it, and in 1790 Rhode Island, which was the last one, agreed to it.

Hamilton, Jay and Madison induced New York to ratify the Constitution by "The Federalist" essays, published in a New York paper.

NOTE 1:—The six objects of the Constitution are stated in its preamble. The Preamble also declares the source of all government power to be in the people.

NOTE 2:—The five most important Conventions in our early history were: The New England Convention in 1643, the Albany Convention in 1754, the First Continental Congress in 1774, the Second Continental Congress beginning 1775, and the Constitutional Convention of 1787.

NOTE 3:—Gladstone, the great English statesman, said: “The American Constitution is the most wonderful work ever struck off at a given time by the brain and purpose of man.”

(e) **The Establishment of the New Government.**

The new Constitution went into operation on March 4, 1789, though the inauguration of Washington as President did not occur until April 30, 1789. The new Congress and the President had a difficult task. The government had to establish public credit, raise revenue, organize new territory, develop industries and national resources.

The nation was deeply in debt, and could not borrow readily as it had no credit.

Hamilton proposed various plans to Congress, and Congress adopted them.

Hamilton's plans were:—

(1) The laying of a tariff on goods imported into United States. This not only raised revenue for government needs, but encouraged American manufactures. He raised additional revenue by having a tax laid on whiskey.

(2) By his plans, Congress assumed the National and State debts in full, making the National debt in 1790 the sum of \$75,000,000. By promising to pay this debt, Congress established United States credit, showing that we were honest, and worthy of further credit.

(3) By Hamilton's plans, Congress established the Bank of United States in 1791. It was a great aid to business as its bills or notes were accepted all over United States.

The government had numerous political difficulties.

(1) The Whiskey Rebellion of 1794 was an attempt by the people of western Pennsylvania to resist the

payment of the government tax on whiskey. An army was sent there by Washington and the people saw they must obey.

(2) There were weighty difficulties also between America and England and between America and France. Because the old debt to British merchants had not been paid, England refused to give up Detroit and other lake ports and seized seamen from American vessels as British subjects. John Jay made a treaty with England settling all the points except impressment of our seamen. The treaty was unpopular, but the Senate ratified it to allay the trouble.

(3) The trouble with France arose out of the action of Genet, the French minister to United States. He wished the United States to aid France against England, but Washington knew we were too weak a nation to mingle in that quarrel, and insisted on neutrality. Genet then defied the government and began to fit out privateers from our ports to attack British commerce. Washington compelled France to recall him. In John Adams's Administration, the trouble with France continued. Our envoys in France were insulted and a bribe was demanded of them before they would be received by the French government. The demand was refused and war began. After two naval defeats, France, under its new ruler, Napoleon, made peace with America.

Thus the struggling nation had established itself, led by its great guides, Washington, Hamilton and Jefferson.

Biographies.

Samuel Adams has been called "The Father of the Revolution." This great patriot was one of the lead-

ing men of Massachusetts in advocating opposition to English oppression and in urging independence. He opposed the Stamp Act and urged the formation of Non-importation Agreements among the colonists. Until the oppressive taxes were removed he bound himself "to eat nothing, drink nothing, wear nothing" imported from England. He took a leading part in the Boston Tea-party of 1773. Massachusetts sent him as delegate to the First Continental Congress in 1774 and to the Second Continental Congress, where he signed the Declaration of Independence.

King George III. considered him one of the chief rebels, for without him as leader Boston would possibly not have resisted England.

John Adams was an eminent Revolutionary patriot. After graduating from Harvard, he soon became a lawyer. He refused the offer of a distinguished position under the English government, and took the side of the colonists. He opposed the Stamp Act of 1765 and other oppressive measures of England.

His sense of fair play made him defend in court the British soldiers in the Boston Massacre of 1770. Massachusetts sent him as delegate to the First Continental Congress and also to the Second Continental Congress. It was Adams proposed Washington as Commander-in-chief of the Continental Army, and it was he who chiefly caused the Congress to declare for independence. He with Franklin and Jay drew up the treaty of 1783, which ended the Revolution. He was the first Vice-President of United States and served as President from 1797 to 1801. The Alien and Sedition Laws passed in his administration made him unpopular for some years. He and Jefferson died on the same

day, July 4, 1826, just fifty years after the first Independence Day.

Patrick Henry, of Virginia, by his eloquence, did much to rouse the colonies to resist England. His first great case as a lawyer was in the Parson's Case. The Virginia House of Burgesses had passed a law saying the clergy should be paid in currency rather than by tobacco which was dear by reason of a short crop. The king said they must be paid as before in tobacco. One minister sued to recover damages in 1763, and by Henry's eloquence, the jury gave the parson one penny damages.

In 1765, Henry, then a member of the Virginia House of Burgesses, opposed the Stamp Act, declaring that Virginia's taxes could only be laid by the House of Burgesses.

His resistance caused other colonies also to oppose English oppression. Virginia sent him as one of her delegates to the First Continental Congress in 1774. When British troops were sent to Boston, the people of Virginia were greatly aroused. They elected a convention of prominent citizens which met in St. John's Church, Richmond. Here, in March, 1775, Patrick Henry made a great speech, urging war against England. In the speech he said, "We must fight! I repeat it, sir, we must fight! An appeal to arms and to the God of hosts is all that is left to us." In concluding he said, "Is life so dear, or peace so sweet as to be purchased at the price of chains and slavery? Forbid it, Almighty God. I know not what course others may take, but as for me, give me liberty, or give me death!" This speech had an immense effect all over the colonies.

in causing them to fight for their freedom from English oppression.

During the Revolution, Henry, as governor of Virginia, ably supported Washington with men and supplies. Henry opposed the Constitution of 1787, saying it had "an awful squinting toward monarchy."

John Hancock was a rich Boston merchant. So boldly did he support the cause of the colonists in their resistance to England that Gage, when he offered to pardon the rebels, excepted Hancock from his offer. He was the first president of the Second Continental Congress, signing the Declaration of Independence as such. From 1777 until his death he was annually re-elected governor of Massachusetts. His means and his influence helped the colonists greatly during the Revolution.

Benjamin Franklin was one of the greatest men America ever produced. Born in Boston, of poor parents, his schooling was limited. He really was self-educated. Apprenticed to his brother, he learned printing, and at seventeen left for Philadelphia, beginning his own career. When twenty-three, he became editor and proprietor of a newspaper, the "Pennsylvania Gazette," and three years later he began his famous "Poor Richard's Almanac," which he continued for twenty-five years. He early entered politics. In 1754, he was a delegate to the Albany Convention suggesting a plan of union (Describe it). The Pennsylvania Assembly sent Franklin as agent to England and while there, he opposed the passage of the Stamp Act of 1765. When summoned before Parliament the next year, his clear reasoning showed them the folly of the Stamp Act and aided in its repeal. On

his return home to Philadelphia in 1775, he was chosen delegate to the Second Continental Congress, serving as a member of the committee that framed the Declaration of Independence. Being sent as ambassador to France, his wisdom and ability won the French, and an alliance between France and America was formed in 1778. This alliance really secured our independence, by the aid that France gave us at that critical period. Franklin also aided in forming the treaty of 1783, which ended the Revolution. Over eighty years old, the nation still needed him, and he was a prominent member of the Convention that framed the Constitution in 1787. The services of Franklin cannot well be overestimated.

George Washington was born in Virginia, February 22, 1732, being the son of a rich planter. As his father died when George was only eleven, his mother and his brother Lawrence, at Mount Vernon, had much to do with his training. At twenty-one, Washington was sent by Governor Dinwiddie, of Virginia, to demand the removal of the French forts in northwestern Pennsylvania. This perilous wilderness journey proved the bravery and skill of the future general. When the French and Indian War broke out, Washington served as Braddock's aide-de-camp, and by his efforts the remnant of the British army was saved from utter rout in the battle near Fort Duquesne in 1755. Mount Vernon he had inherited from his brother, and his marriage with Mrs. Martha Custis (1759) made him one of the richest men in America. It meant much when this rich planter risked his possessions to fight for the colonists in their struggle with England. He was sent as one of Virginia's delegates

to the First Continental Congress in 1774. In June, 1775, Congress elected him commander-in-chief of the Continental army. With those undisciplined troops he besieged Gage in Boston, compelling his evacuation in the spring of 1776. His retreat through the Jerseys after the unsuccessful New York campaign and his brilliant victory at Trenton in 1776 showed his power as a general. After losing the Philadelphia campaign, Washington still held the confidence of his soldiers, and not even the terrors of Valley Forge conquered their devotion to their leader and the cause. Yorktown in 1781 crowned his years of unpaid service to the nation and when peace came, Washington returned quietly to private life. The confusion and disorder caused by the Articles of Confederation brought Washington again to the front, and in 1787 he served as president of the Constitutional Convention. Under this new Constitution he was elected President of United States, serving two terms. Aided by Hamilton and Jefferson he established the new government, overcoming the difficulties of an empty treasury and of a threatened war with England.

Washington declined a third term as President, and issued his "Farewell Address" in September, 1796. This address was full of wisdom, urging the value of union and the danger of foreign alliances. Washington died in 1799 at Mount Vernon. He was, in truth, the "Father of his Country." Jefferson said truly of him, "He was indeed, in every sense of the word, a wise, a good, and a great man."

Thomas Jefferson was a prominent American statesman. He was brilliantly educated and became a lawyer. Virginia sent him as a delegate to the Sec-

ond Continental Congress in 1775, and the next year, Jefferson wrote the immortal Declaration of Independence. This paper had an immense effect on the colonists, rousing them to a united resistance to England in defence of their liberty.

After the Revolution, Jefferson was a member of the Congress that ruled under the Articles of Confederation, and the decimal currency of to-day was due to his bill establishing such money in place of English money. Washington appointed him as his Secretary of State, and as such Jefferson became the leader of the Republican Party which opposed most of Hamilton's ideas and plans. Jefferson served as Vice-President under John Adams, and after him, held the presidency from 1801 to 1809. Jefferson believed in "republican simplicity." He hated titles and ceremonies, dressing in plain clothes, and avoiding all the display that had marked the preceding administration. These democratic ideas had a great effect on the people. In that administration, imitating Jefferson, they adopted the dress of to-day, instead of the showy colonial attire.

His purchase of Louisiana from France in 1803 was the greatest event of his administration. This purchase opposed his doctrine of State rights and he said, "The executive authority had to be stretched until it cracked, to cover the purchase of Louisiana." Other great events were the exploration of the Louisiana Territory by Lewis and Clarke in 1804-1806, and Fulton's invention of the steamboat.

At the end of his term he retired to Monticello, his Virginia estate, dying there in 1826, on July 4, the day he had made famous by his "Declaration of Independence."

Robert Morris was a distinguished American statesman and financier. This rich Philadelphia banker and merchant took the side of the struggling colonists against England. He was a member of the Second Continental Congress, signing the Declaration of Independence. In 1777, just after the battle of Trenton, in answer to Washington's request, Morris sent him fifty thousand dollars, thus enabling Washington to keep his ill-paid army together. The battle of Yorktown could not have been fought if Morris had not advanced his own funds to equip and move the army. During the war he issued his personal notes to the amount of several million dollars, and American independence could not have been won without his money.

In 1781 he was Superintendent of Finance, serving for three years. He was a member of the Constitutional Convention of 1787, aiding in the formation of that instrument.

After the war, owing to business failure, he lost his fortune and was cast into a debtors' prison for four years, neglected by the government for which he had done so much.

Alexander Hamilton was born on the West Indian island of Nevis. A merchant clerk at twelve, his literary talents caused his friends to send him to United States to be educated. He went to King's College, New York, in 1773, and soon took the colonists' side in their struggle with England. When the war broke out, Hamilton became a captain of artillery, serving at the battles of Long Island, Trenton, and Princeton. In 1777, he became Washington's aide-de-camp and confidential secretary. At Yorktown he commanded a

battalion of Washington's army. After the war, he became a lawyer. New York sent him as delegate to the Constitutional Convention of 1787, as he clearly saw the need of a strong Federal government. His plan was not adopted by the Convention, but he signed the new Constitution and really secured its ratification by New York through the powerful essays, "The Federalist." Hamilton wrote more than half of these essays which so clearly explained the value and the meaning of the new Constitution.

Washington appointed him Secretary of the Treasury in 1789, and his measures established the credit of United States firmly (Describe Hamilton's Measures, Page 14). He assisted Washington in writing the latter's "Farewell Address."

Hamilton's most bitter enemy was Aaron Burr, since it was Hamilton's influence which had saved the nation from having Burr as President. When Hamilton opposed Burr as candidate for the position of governor of New York, Burr challenged him and killed him in a duel in 1804.

Talleyrand, the great French statesman, said he had never known any man equal in ability to Hamilton. No patriot's name stands higher than Hamilton's.

James Madison was an eminent American statesman, born in Virginia. He was a prominent member of the Constitutional Convention of 1787. He was the chief author of the "Virginia Plan," which formed the main basis of the Constitution. He also proposed the "three-fifths rule," by which three-fifths of the number of slaves were to be counted in determining the number of representatives a State could send to Congress. Without this clause, the Southern States would

never have adopted the Constitution. He with Hamilton and Jay wrote "The Federalist" essays, which had such an effect in securing the adoption of the Constitution by the states. He was Secretary of State under Jefferson, and succeeded him as President. During his administration, the War of 1812 was fought with England, resulting in the establishment of United States as a great power, whose rights other nations were forced to respect.

William Pitt, Earl of Chatham, was a great English statesman. As William Pitt, he was a member of the House of Commons, and became in 1757 the Secretary of State in the English ministry. He carried the French and Indian war to a successful close and it was after him that the colonists named Fort Duquesne when captured. The English idolized him and called him "the Great Commoner." In 1766, as a member of Parliament, he attacked the Stamp Act, saying that England had no right to tax the colonists. Knowing that the Americans were fighting for their just rights, he said, "The gentlemen tell us America is obstinate, America is in open rebellion. I rejoice that America has resisted." It was largely due to his efforts that the Stamp Act was repealed. So, in 1775, when Earl of Chatham, he demanded the repeal of the Boston Port bill, believing that the colonists ought to be fairly treated. His last speech, in 1778, opposed granting the colonies their independence. During this speech he had an apoplectic fit, dying a few weeks later.

Edmund Burke, a great English orator and statesman, was a friend of the American colonies. His speech in Parliament against American taxation in 1774 was fine oratory, as was his speech in 1775, on

“Conciliation with America,” recommending kindness and fairness toward the angry American colonists. If Burke’s advice had been followed, the Revolution might never have been fought.

Baron von Steuben was a German officer who had served under Frederick the Great. In 1777, he entered the service of America, and at Valley Forge he drilled and reorganized the army into capable and well disciplined troops. He served at Monmouth and Yorktown. He showed his devotion to the American cause by spending his fortune freely to feed and clothe his men.

Marquis de Lafayette, a wealthy young noble of France, in spite of the opposition of King Louis XVI., sailed to America in 1777, to aid the American colonists in fighting for their liberty. He fought in the battles of Brandywine, Monmouth and Yorktown, aiding greatly in securing the Americans’ triumph.

On his return to France he aided in establishing the new government. When he could no longer control the excesses of the French Revolutionists he fled from France. Austria seized him and imprisoned him for five years, Napoleon securing his release in 1797.

His second visit to America in 1824-1825 was a scene of triumph, for the grateful people showed every possible honor to this unselfish hero.

Growth in Territory and Population.

By the terms of the Treaty of Paris which closed the Revolution, the United States extended from the Atlantic Ocean to the Mississippi River, and from Canada to Florida, which belonged to Spain and extended along the Gulf of Mexico to Louisiana.

Many acquisitions of territory have been made since 1783. In 1803, Jefferson sent Monroe to France to buy from Napoleon the island of New Orleans in order to secure control of the Mississippi River. Napoleon, needing money and thinking the region too distant to defend against the English, sold all of **Louisiana Territory** to United States for fifteen million dollars. This more than doubled its area, as Louisiana Territory extended from the Mississippi River to the Rocky Mountains.

In 1804, Jefferson sent out an expedition under Captains Lewis and Clark to explore the Louisiana Territory. They started from St. Louis, and went to the Columbia River, going down to its mouth. They returned in 1806, and their report of the wealth of the country showed its great value.

The second territorial acquisition was that of **Florida, in 1819**. Florida belonged to Spain, but she could not maintain order there. General Jackson was sent there in 1818, conquered the Indians, and invaded Florida. Spain was glad to sell Florida to United States the next year (1819) for five million dollars. This gave the United States the Gulf coast.

The third acquisition was **Texas, in 1845**. Texas had revolted against Mexico and had formed a republic. It then applied for admission to United States. The question was not settled for several years, as the North opposed its admission, and the slave-holding South favored it. Finally, at the close of Tyler's administration, in 1845, Congress passed the bill annexing Texas, and the President signed it. This added an area of over 370,000 square miles, including the Texas

of to-day, and part of New Mexico, Colorado and Kansas.

The fourth territorial acquisition was **Oregon, in 1846.** The disputed Oregon country, which was claimed by both England and United States, stretched from California and Nevada to Alaska, west of the Rocky Mountains. United States based its claim on the discovery of the Columbia River by Captain Gray in 1792 and on the Lewis and Clark exploring expedition of 1804-1806. Dr. Marcus Whitman urged the United States government to claim the Oregon country, and in the summer of 1843, took out there almost one thousand settlers. The American cry was "Fifty-four forty or fight," meaning that they insisted on the possession of Oregon up to Alaska. In 1846, by treaty with England, the forty-ninth parallel was made the northern boundary line of United States. From the Oregon country, the States of Oregon, Washington and Idaho have been formed.

The fifth territorial acquisition was the **Mexican Cession, in 1848.** This region of over 500,000 square miles extended from the Rocky Mountains to the Pacific Ocean, and from Mexico to the Oregon country. It was obtained by the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, signed in 1848, after our army had conquered Mexico. United States in return gave Mexico fifteen million dollars.

The **Gadsden Purchase of 1853** was made by United States, to settle a disputed boundary line with Mexico. United States paid Mexico ten million dollars, obtaining the land in New Mexico and Arizona, south of the Gila River.

In 1867, Alaska was purchased by the United States from Russia, for a little over seven million dollars. The area thus acquired was over 500,000 square miles.

In 1898, the Hawaiian Islands in the Pacific Ocean were annexed by Act of Congress, at the request of the inhabitants of these islands.

The ninth acquisition of territory was made in **1898**, by the treaty ending the Spanish-American War. By this treaty we acquired the Philippine Islands, Guam in the Ladrone Islands, and Porto Rico, in the West Indies. United States gave Spain \$20,000,000 for her claims on the Philippines.

The **number of States** in 1790 was thirteen; it is now (1904), forty-five.

The population by the **first census** in 1790 was about 3,900,000. The last census, in 1900, showed the population to be over 76,000,000.

The temperate climate, the rich soil, the valuable mineral deposits and the opportunities offered for commerce by numerous rivers and harbors have all contributed to this increase in the population of United States, as they attracted immigrants from Europe. In earlier years, the immigrants came chiefly from England, Ireland, Germany. In later years, a less desirable class of immigrants has come from Russia, Hungary, and Italy.

Progress in the Useful Arts.

(a) **Heating.** In most colonial houses, the immense open fireplace, burning wood, was the only means of heating. After 1835, anthracite coal became widely used for heating buildings, and is now used almost entirely in the cities, in stoves and furnaces, to

furnish heat. Many public buildings are heated by hot water or steam to-day, and some by electricity. Oil and gas are also used to a certain extent for heating dwellings.

(b) **Lighting** in colonial days was mainly by means of candles and lamps burning whale oil. The logs in the fireplace also gave a certain amount of light to the room. As there were no matches, to kindle the fire they must borrow burning wood from a neighbor or else start it by striking flint against steel. About 1820, gas was used for lighting in the large cities, but it was the middle of the century before small towns used it. Petroleum was discovered in Pennsylvania in 1856, and since then has proved a valued means of lighting dwellings.

Thomas Edison invented the electric light in 1876. Electricity began to be used for lighting large buildings and streets in 1879, and is now used almost entirely for these purposes.

(c) **Weaving** in colonial days was done by hand, and every family had its spinning wheel and hand loom for making cloth from the flax and wool. This "homespun" was about the only cloth used then. The invention of Eli Whitney's cotton-gin in 1793 made cotton available for manufacturing purposes, for by this invention the seeds could be removed cheaply from the cotton. This invention has developed the South, by making cotton a profitable crop, and has also been of great value to the North, by supplying a material for its machinery to weave into cloth. Weaving is done entirely in factories, to-day, the machinery being driven by steam or electricity.

(d) **Sewing** was also done entirely by hand in colonial days. The invention of the sewing-machine by Elias Howe in 1846 has greatly lessened the labor of sewing, for to-day, almost every family has its sewing-machine. It has also cheapened the price of all sewed goods, such as articles of clothing, boots and shoes. In factories, steam and electricity are used to run the machines.

(e) **Means of Communication and Travel.**

1. What little travel there was in colonial days was on foot or horseback or by coasting vessels. The first stage between New York and Philadelphia began in 1756, the journey taking three days. In 1766, this journey was reduced to two days.

2. Internal communication improved greatly after the roads were made better. The National Pike or **Cumberland Road** from Cumberland in Maryland, on the Potomac River, to Wheeling in West Virginia, on the Ohio River, was begun in 1806. This road was later continued to the Mississippi.

3. After Fulton's steamboat, the **Clermont**, in 1807, went from New York to Albany in thirty-two hours, travel on rivers and lakes became greatly facilitated.

4. **The Erie Canal** was begun in Monroe's Administration through the efforts of Governor Clinton, of New York. It extended east, across New York, from Buffalo on Lake Erie to Albany on the Hudson River, a distance of 363 miles. It took eight years to build, being finished in 1825.

Its effect was to greatly increase commerce. It reduced the cost of freight greatly, making Eastern

goods much cheaper when sent West for sale. It made New York our greatest seaport.

5. The first passenger **railroad** in United States was near Baltimore. It was about thirteen miles long, and was first used in 1830. By the end of that year, there were twenty-three miles of railroad in United States. In 1869, when the Union Pacific from Omaha, and the Central Pacific from San Francisco were united at Ogden, Utah, railway connection was established between New York and San Francisco.

In 1904, there were almost 200,000 miles of railroad in United States, which leads the world in the extent of its railways.

6. Electricity has greatly improved **travel in cities**. The first electric railway was in Richmond, Virginia, in 1888. Now every town has such means of travel. The automobile is steadily increasing in value for business purposes, as its electric or oil motor dispenses with the horse.

7. **Ocean travel** in colonial days was a terrible hardship, as it took at least six weeks to sail from America to Europe. In 1819, the Savannah, moved partly by steam and partly by wind, crossed from Savannah to Liverpool.

Ericsson invented the screw propeller in 1836, which required much less fuel to move vessels than the paddle wheel, and soon after, steamships began crossing the Atlantic regularly.

To-day, the swift "ocean liners" cross the ocean in a little over five days.

(f) **Means of Communication.**

1. **Letters** in colonial days were rarely sent. Before Franklin became postmaster-general, mail be-

tween New York and Philadelphia was sent by horse-back, going once a week in summer, and once in two weeks in winter. Franklin caused the mail to be delivered three times a week.

The rate of postage varied then according to the distance. Thus, in Washington's administration, the postage on a letter from New York to Boston was seventeen cents, and to Richmond, Virginia, was twenty-five cents. In 1885, after repeated reductions, a letter could be sent anywhere in United States at two cents per ounce. Five cents will take a letter to any foreign country.

2. The **telegraph** was invented by Samuel F. B. Morse, and the first line was completed in 1844, being between Baltimore and Washington. "What hath God wrought!" was the first message. This mode of communication has been of immense value to business and commerce owing to its great speed. There are over a million miles of telegraph wires now in United States.

3. The electric **telephone** was invented by Alexander Graham Bell in 1876. To-day its use is universal, enabling people in different parts of the city or in different cities to converse together. This greatly facilitates business, saving much time.

4. **Cables** are now a valued means of communication with distant countries. Cyrus W. Field in 1858 laid a cable on the bed of the Atlantic between Ireland and Newfoundland. When this failed, Field renewed his efforts, laying a successful cable in 1866. To-day we have numerous cables, permitting messages being sent rapidly across oceans by electric currents.

NOTE.—State the value of steam and of electricity in the various useful arts.

Progress in Education.

In colonial New England, from the earliest times, great attention was paid to the education of the young. Massachusetts by law compelled every town to establish a free school, and the other New England colonies were just as attentive to popular education. In these colonies, higher education was provided for by Harvard College, near Boston, which was established in 1636, and by Yale College near New Haven, Connecticut, which was founded in 1701.

In Pennsylvania, the Quakers took great interest in education, establishing a school in Philadelphia the very year it was settled. The University of Pennsylvania, in Philadelphia, was founded by Franklin and others in 1755.

New York under English rule gave but little attention to public education, and all through the middle colonies private schools were much more common than public ones. In Virginia, the rich planters employed private tutors for their sons or sent them abroad to be educated, and this was the case in most of the Southern colonies.

In all the colonial lower schools, the pupils suffered from the poor character of the education.

The schools were few in number, and were without the educational facilities of to-day. The chief textbooks were the primer and the spelling-book, for the "three R's" (Readin', Ritin', and Rithmetie) were the only branches taught. The punishments inflicted were often cruel and brutal.

The improved condition of the schools has only been brought about by repeated efforts. All the States now have creditable public schools, on which great sums

of money are spent. The credit of Pennsylvania's public schools is due first, to Governor Wolf, who induced the Legislature to establish a system of free public schools in 1834, and second, to Thaddeus Stevens, who, by his eloquence, prevented the repeal of that law in 1835.

To-day, with educated teachers, excellent textbooks and well-equipped schools, open free to all, there is nothing to prevent everyone from getting an education.

Progress in Literature.

(a) **Colonial literature** was largely religious in character, most of the books being collections of sermons. Cotton Mather, a famous Boston preacher, noted for his witchcraft persecutions, wrote numerous religious works. Another colonial writer is the great Jonathan Edwards, whose "Essay on the Freedom of the Will" is to-day unsurpassed in that line of reasoning. Benjamin Franklin's "Poor Richard's Almanac," published by him for twenty-five years was highly prized for its wise maxims.

(b) During the **Revolution**, the literature was all political in character. Thomas Paine's pamphlet, "Common Sense," published in 1776, advocated American independence and did much to rouse the colonists. Thomas Jefferson's great "Declaration of Independence" is one of the finest papers of the kind ever written. The essays, called "The Federalist," written by Alexander Hamilton, James Madison, and John Jay to explain the Constitution and secure its adoption by New York are also powerful political writings.

(c) After the War of 1812, in **Monroe's Administration**, real American literature began. Washington

Irving was one of the earliest writers of that era. He wrote "The Sketch Book" first, which is a series of delightful essays. Among the histories written by Irving is a "History of the Life and Voyages of Christopher Columbus."

The first American novelist of any note was James Fenimore Cooper. He wrote "The Spy," and "The Last of the Mohicans." The first great American poet was William Cullen Bryant. His beautiful "Thanatopsis" (a view of death) was written when he was only eighteen. "To a Waterfowl" and "The Death of the Flowers" are two other beautiful poems by Bryant.

Three other great American poets are John Greenleaf Whittier, Henry W. Longfellow and James Russell Lowell. Whittier's best known poems are "Barbara Frietchie," "Among the Hills," and "Snowbound." Longfellow wrote "The Children's Hour," "Evangeline," "Hiawatha," and "The Courtship of Miles Standish." Lowell wrote "The Vision of Sir Launfal," "Ode to Freedom," and "Under the Old Elm."

Edgar Allan Poe wrote poems and tales, "The Raven" being his best-known poem. Oliver Wendell Holmes also wrote prose and poetry, "The Autoocrat at the Breakfast Table" being his most famous prose, and "The Chambered Nautilus" his most famous poetical writing.

Ralph Waldo Emerson is chiefly famous for his great essays, such as "Representative Men." His poem "Rhodora" is one of the most beautiful in the language.

The two greatest American novelists are Nathaniel Hawthorne, who wrote "The Scarlet Letter," "The Marble Faun," and "The House of the Seven Gables," and Harriet Beecher Stowe, who wrote the powerful anti-slavery novel, "Uncle Tom's Cabin."

America has also produced some great historians. The three greatest are William Hickling Prescott, George Bancroft, and John Lothrop Motley. Prescott wrote, "Conquest of Mexico," and "Conquest of Peru." Bancroft wrote a "History of United States" (from 1492 to 1789), and Motley wrote "The Rise of the Dutch Republic."

Progress in Newspapers.

The first permanent American newspaper was the "Boston News Letter," a weekly, published first in 1704. Sometimes it was printed on a single foolscap sheet, and sometimes on a half sheet. During the Revolution, there were thirty-seven newspapers, but the first daily paper "The American Daily Advertiser" appeared in Philadelphia only in 1784. The first one-cent daily was the New York "Daily Sun" which began in Jackson's administration.

These papers were all small and their news was chiefly local. They bore no comparison to the great newspapers of the present, which are such powerful educators and leaders, numbering as they do almost twenty thousand in United States.

Financial Questions.

(a) In colonial times, there was little real money. At first the colonists, like the Indians, used strings of shell beads called wampum. Later, in Virginia, tobacco was often used in place of money. Of course, the English coins were used all through the colonies,

as were Spanish coins. The Boston mint was early established and its "Pine-tree" shilling became well known. The shilling bore a figure of a pine tree, giving it its name.

The Continental Congress issued paper money to carry on the Revolution. All paper money is simply a promise to pay, and when the government issuing it has no gold or silver to redeem its pledge, the paper money becomes worthless. This was the case with the Continental paper money, which sank in value until \$40 in bills was worth \$1 in coin.

(b) When the Constitution was adopted, it gave Congress power to coin money, and under this provision, Congress established a mint in Philadelphia in 1792.

The credit of the new government was very low, and it was Hamilton who saved it by the measures he induced Congress to pass. (Describe in full Hamilton's Plans, Page 14). Connected with the government's financial history is its tariff history.

(c) A **tariff** is a tax or duty laid on articles imported into a country. It is the opposite of "free trade" which imposes no duties at all on imports. Hamilton's plans included the laying of a tariff, but it was not very high. A high tariff or protective tariff is one which is intended to protect American manufactures by laying such a tax on imported goods as will make them more expensive than similar goods made here. A protective tariff, sometimes called "The American System," began in 1816, after the War of 1812, and continued until 1846. In 1828, a very high tariff was passed. The North as a manufacturing section favored it, while the South, an agricultural sec-

tion, opposed it. To appease the South, the tariff of 1832 was passed, but it failed to allay the trouble. South Carolina declared the tariff "null and void" and threatened to secede if the duties were collected. President Jackson did not believe a State had the right to secede. He therefore sent troops and ships to Charleston to enforce the Federal law, and South Carolina had to obey. The trouble was ended by Henry Clay's Compromise Tariff of 1833, which provided for a gradual reduction of the tariff.

From 1846 to 1861, the tariff of United States was a tariff for revenue only. A revenue tariff does not aim to protect home manufactures, but lays a tariff on imports, only to raise enough revenue to support the government.

In 1861 with the outbreak of the Civil War, a high war tariff was laid on imports, in order to raise more money for war expenses.

This war tariff was reduced by the McKinley tariff of 1890. One of the features of this tariff was the "reciprocity measure." This permitted certain articles to be admitted into America free of duty if the country from which they came allowed certain American articles to enter free. The present Dingley Tariff, adopted in 1897, is a protective tariff.

(d) In 1861, the government to relieve its financial situation, issued **paper money** or "greenbacks." As the war went on, this paper money sank in value until in 1864, a paper dollar was worth only thirty-five cents. After the war the public credit was soon restored, and on January 1, 1879, specie payments were resumed, and government paper money could be redeemed at its face value in gold or silver.

(e) United States Bank.

In 1791, the Bank of United States, in Philadelphia, was chartered by Congress for twenty years. The establishment of the bank was proposed to Congress by Alexander Hamilton, to help improve the financial condition of United States. It was a great aid to business, as its bills or notes were accepted all over the United States.

The first charter expired in 1811. In 1816, the Bank was re-established in Philadelphia by a new charter for twenty years. In 1832, the Bank applied to Congress for an extension of time, and Congress passed the bill. Jackson, who was opposed to the Bank, vetoed this bill, and as Congress was not able to pass it over the President's veto, the charter expired in 1836.

To further injure the bank, Jackson removed from it the government money, and put it in State banks. Here the money could easily be borrowed. Speculation in western lands now became very common. These speculators bought land from the government and laid out imaginary towns, selling these town lots at high prices to people who had never seen the land. Many banks, called "wild cat banks," were then started. All these banks issued paper money, and people paid for government land with notes on these banks.

As many of these banks had no capital back of their notes, Jackson, in 1836, ordered that in future, nothing but specie gold or silver coin was to be taken in payment for land. The notes went back for redemption in specie, and where there was no money in the banks, they failed. This caused the panic of 1837, in Van Buren's administration. To raise money to pay their debts, men tried to sell houses, lands, stocks, etc., but

found few buyers. Prices went down, and business men failed all over the country. Factories stopped running and men were idle everywhere. This panic lasted a year.

Sub-Treasury System. Van Buren's remedy for the financial troubles was to remove the government's money from the State banks and place it in the Treasury at Washington and in branches or sub-treasuries in the nine chief cities of the United States. In this way, the government is protected against loss.

Troubles with Foreign Countries.

(a) Troubles with **France and England.** (See Washington's and John Adams's Administration.)

(b) The War of 1812.

The **causes** of the war of 1812 were as follows:—

1. Inciting Indians to fight against United States.
2. Ruining American commerce by the Orders in Council.
3. Capturing American vessels.
4. Impressing or seizing American seamen, under the "Right of Search" claim.

The various British "Orders in Council" forbade trade with France or her allies, while Napolon's retaliatory decrees forbade trade with England or her allies. Both France and England captured American vessels, but the grievances against England were greater.

The "Right of Search," demanded by England, gave her the right to board American vessels and to seize sailors whom she declared to be English deserters. Over six thousand men were thus impressed.

The **results** of the War of 1812 were:—

1. The naval victories of United States made us respected and feared by all European nations. Our commerce dared no longer be molested on the high seas.

2. Americans felt greater respect for their own country and began to realize the strength and power of the Union.

3. American manufactures increased greatly during the war, to supply articles to take the place of those formerly imported from England.

(e) The **Mexican War**, in Polk's Administration (1846-1848), had two chief **causes**. First, United States had admitted Texas to the Union, although its independence had never been acknowledged by Mexico, from whom it had revolted.

Second, both United States and Mexico claimed the land lying between the Rio Grande and the Nueces River. When General Taylor occupied this disputed territory, war broke out.

The **results** of the Mexican War were as follows:—

By the treaty of peace, signed in 1848, at Guadalupe Hidalgo, near the capital, Mexico gave up all claims to Texas, and made the Rio Grande its southern boundary. Mexico also gave the United States the vast territory, called the Mexican Cession, which extended from the Rocky Mountains and the Rio Grande to the Pacific, and from Mexico to the Oregon country. In return, United States gave Mexico \$15,000,000.

(d) Trouble with England over the **Oregon Boundary**. (See page 27, Acquisition of Oregon.)

(e) **War with Spain**.

Cause. Cuba had been in revolt against Spain for a number of years. In McKinley's first term, General

Weyler, the Spanish governor-general of Cuba, had waged the war with such cruelty that the indignation of United States was aroused. The battleship Maine, sent to protect Americans in Havana, was blown up by the explosion of a mine placed under it (February 15, 1898). By this explosion, 264 of the crew were killed.

This aroused the rage of the whole nation. Congress ordered Spain to remove her forces from Cuba, and declared the island independent. As Spain refused her assent to this, war resulted, beginning April 21, 1898.

The purpose of this war was simply to free Cuba from the unjust, cruel rule of Spain.

The **results** of the war were as follows:—

The treaty was signed at Paris, in December, 1898. By it, Spain acknowledged the independence of Cuba, and gave Porto Rico, Guam (one of the Ladrone Islands in the Pacific Ocean), and the Philippine Islands to United States. For the Spanish claims in the Philippines, United States gave Spain \$20,000,000.

The United States kept her promise as to Cuban independence, and Cuba to-day is a free nation.

Slavery.

(a) **Introduction.** Slavery was introduced into Virginia in 1619, by a Dutch trading-vessel, which brought twenty negroes there. Slavery was soon found very valuable in the hot Southern climate for field labor on the great plantations. With the invention of the **cotton=gin** in 1793, cotton became the chief Southern crop, and the demand for slaves greatly increased, and the practice became a feature of Southern life.

(b) **Compromises in the Constitution regarding Slavery.** (See page 13.)

(c) **Acts of Congress relating to Slavery.**

1. The Congress ruling under the Articles of Confederation passed the **Ordinance of 1787**. This Act provided for the government of the territory north of the Ohio River and East of the Mississippi. This Ordinance forbade slavery forever in that territory.

2. The next Act of Congress relating to slavery was the **Missouri Compromise** of 1820. The question of the admission of Missouri as a State led to a bitter fight. The slavery and the anti-slavery parties were evenly divided in the Senate, hence each side was unwilling to give the other an advantage. The Missouri Compromise, introduced by Thomas, of Illinois, and urged by Henry Clay, the Speaker of the House, provided that Missouri should be admitted as a slave State, but that slavery should be prohibited in all the rest of the Louisiana Territory north of $36^{\circ} 30'$, the southern boundary of Missouri. The bill was passed and Missouri entered as a slave State.

3. The **annexation of Texas** by Congress in 1845, in Tyler's Administration, admitted another slave State to the Union, in spite of the opposition of the North. This led to the Mexican War.

4. The **Omnibus Bill**. When California applied for admission to the Union as a free State, another conflict in Congress resulted. To allay the strife, Henry Clay, United States Senator from Kentucky, proposed in Congress his "Omnibus Bill" or Compromise of 1850. Its chief features were (1) the admission of California as a free State; (2) the formation of Utah and New Mexico into territories without any provision regarding slavery; (3) the prohibition of all slave trade in the District of Columbia; (4) the passing of a Fugitive

tive Slave Law which would provide for the arrest and return to their owners of escaped slaves.

This Fugitive Slave Law provided for United States officials who should hear claims to fugitive slaves, and should surrender such slaves to their owners without a jury trial. Persons who assisted a fugitive slave to escape could be fined and imprisoned. The effect of this law was to strengthen the anti-slavery party greatly, as the law was very unpopular in the North.

5. **The Kansas-Nebraska Act** in Pierce's Administration was the fifth Act of Congress regarding slavery. Stephen Douglas, the Democratic United States Senator from Illinois, introduced the Kansas-Nebraska Bill into Congress in 1854. This provided for the organization of two territories, Kansas and Nebraska, allowing the people of each territory to decide for themselves as to whether to permit slavery or not. As the early settlers were sometimes called squatters, this manner of leaving the question to be settled by them was called "squatter sovereignty." This bill violated the Missouri Compromise, which prohibited slavery in that region, but it became a law.

The result was to lead to a bitter conflict in Kansas. Both the slavery and anti-slavery parties sent settlers to Kansas, and fighting went on for three years, John Brown, the Abolitionist, taking part in the conflict.

Finally, the anti-slavery party won, and Kansas was admitted as a free State in 1861. The Kansas-Nebraska Act further widened the breach between the North and the South.

(d) **Slavery was the leading cause of the Civil War.** The South was an agricultural section and used slave labor in the fields. The North was mainly a

manufacturing section, and required no slave labor. This produced a conflict of interests and opinions.

Slavery was introduced into Virginia in 1619. The quarrel over slavery was shown in the Constitution's compromises, in the Ordinance of 1787, in the Missouri Compromise of 1820, in the annexation of Texas in 1845, in the Compromise of 1850, in the Kansas-Nebraska Act of 1854, in the Dred Scott Decision of 1857, and in John Brown's Raid on Harper's Ferry in 1859.

NOTE.—The Dred Scott Decision was given in 1857 in the United States Supreme Court. Dred Scott was a slave whose master had moved from the slave State of Missouri to the free State of Illinois. Later, when they returned to Missouri, Dred Scott claimed his residence in the free State of Illinois had made him free. The case was taken into court. Finally, the United States Supreme Court, with Roger Taney as Chief Justice, declared that a slave was only a piece of property, and therefore, a slave owner could take his slaves where he pleased. This decision roused the North, for according to it, slave owners could have slaves in any part of the Union.

This perpetual quarrel regarding slavery at length culminated in the Civil War.

(e) During the Civil War, in 1862, shortly after the battle of Antietam, Lincoln issued his **Emancipation Proclamation** as a war measure. It declared that on January 1, 1863, all slaves in States at war with the Union should be forever free.

(f) Slavery was finally abolished in United States by the **Thirteenth Amendment**. In February, 1865, Congress passed the Thirteenth Amendment to the United States Constitution. This abolished slavery throughout the United States, becoming a part of the Constitution in December, 1865, when ratified by three-fourths of the States.

The Civil War.

- (a) The Civil War lasted from 1861 to 1865.
- (b) Its **causes** were slavery, the tariff, and the doctrine of State Rights.

Discuss Slavery as the leading cause of the Civil War (page 44).

The North and the South held opposing views on the **Tariff**. The North, as a manufacturing section, desired a high protective tariff to enable its products to compete with the cheaper importations from Europe. The South, as an agricultural section, opposed a high tariff. It had no manufactures to protect and desired only to buy its needs as cheap as possible. This conflict of interests was shown especially in the nullification troubles of 1832.

By the doctrine of **State Rights** we mean the opinion that the United States was only a voluntary league of States, and that any State might, if it wished, disobey any act of Congress or might secede from the Union when it desired. According to this doctrine, the State Government was independent of the Federal government. The Southern States all held this view, while the North rejected this idea entirely, believing in an indissoluble Union.

The **immediate causes** of the outbreak of hostilities were the election of Lincoln, the secession of the Southern States and the attack on Fort Sumter.

Secession of States.

As soon as it was known in 1860 that Lincoln was elected President, South Carolina seceded from the Union, and soon Georgia and the five Gulf States followed. In February, 1861, delegates from the seven States met at Montgomery, Alabama, and organized their new government, calling it the Confederate

States of America, with Jefferson Davis as President.

After war actually began, in 1861, Virginia, Arkansas, Tennessee, and North Carolina seceded, making eleven seceded states.

Fort Sumter.

Fort Sumter in Charleston harbor was threatened by General Beauregard and his forces. President Buchanan sent an unarmed steamer, the Star of the West, with supplies for Fort Sumter, but the Confederates fired on it, and drove it back. Lincoln, a month after his inauguration, notified the governor of South Carolina that he intended to send provisions to Fort Sumter. Jefferson Davis then directed General Beauregard to demand Fort Sumter's surrender, and in case it refused, to fire on it. As Major Anderson refused to surrender the fort, it was bombarded for thirty-four hours, and Anderson was forced to surrender, April 14, 1861.

Raising of Men and Money for the War.

(a) The day following the fall of Fort Sumter, Lincoln issued a proclamation for 75,000 troops to serve three months, and four times that many volunteered.

(b) The low Revenue Tariff was changed by Congress, and a high War Tariff was passed in 1861, to raise funds for government needs. By the end of the war, the tariff was almost three times as great as in Buchanan's administration.

(c) As the expenses of the government varied from one to three million dollars daily, heavy taxes were laid. Money was also raised by borrowing, bonds being issued which paid a high rate of interest. The government also issued paper money or "green backs." These two methods were the ideas of Salmon P. Chase,

the Secretary of the Treasury. Gold was soon at a premium as the war continued, and “greenbacks” sank in value, so that in July, 1864, a dollar note was worth only thirty-five cents in gold.

NOTE.—In the autumn of 1863, flour was \$100 per barrel, and before the war closed it was \$1500 per barrel, Confederate money.

Principal Movements of the War.

(a) The operations of the Confederates were mainly defensive, the chief exceptions being Lee’s invasions of the North in 1862 and in 1863, and Early’s raid in 1864. This gave them an immense advantage, as they knew their territory and could use all their forces to defend it, without using any in overrunning the North.

(b) The **three chief objects** of the Union forces were: (1) the blockade of the Southern ports; (2) the opening of the Mississippi River; (3) the capture of Richmond.

The Blockade.

In April, 1861, Lincoln declared the entire Southern coast in a state of blockade. The purpose of the blockade was to prevent the importing of war supplies to the South, and to prevent the exporting of cotton and other products from the South, thus ruining its commerce and impoverishing it.

The four great events connected with this blockade were as follows:—

I. The Monitor and Merrimac Battle.

The Merrimac was a former Northern vessel which the Confederates had covered with iron. In 1862, under Commodore Franklin Buchanan, this ironclad entered Hampton Roads, near the mouth of the James River, and destroyed the wooden war vessels, the Cum-

berland and the Congress. That same night, the Monitor, commanded by Lieutenant John L. Worden, entered Hampton Roads. It was iron-clad, with a low deck and a central, iron-clad revolving turret with two guns, having been built in New York by Captain John Eriesson. After a four hours' battle (Sunday, March 9), the Merrimac had to withdraw, though not destroyed. If the Monitor had not conquered the Merrimac, it would have broken up the blockade by destroying the Union vessels. Thus the Monitor saved the blockade and also the Northern ports. Another result of this battle was to cause the wooden war vessels of the world to give place to the iron-clads of modern times.

2. Capture of New Orleans.

New Orleans was the most important Southern port. It was defended by Fort St. Philip and Fort Jackson, with iron chains stretched across the river below the forts and a fleet of war vessels above them. In April 1862, a land and naval expedition was sent against it, Commodore David G. Farragut commanding the Union fleet, while General Benjamin Butler commanded the land forces. After bombarding the forts in vain for six days, Farragut succeeded in passing them in the night. Next he attacked the Confederate war vessels above the forts, and after capturing or destroying them, he forced New Orleans to surrender.

3. Numerous places on the coast were captured during 1862, and by the end of this year, the only coast cities held by the Confederates were Savannah, Charleston, Wilmington and Mobile. This made the blockade very successful.

4. The Battle of Mobile Bay.

In 1864, Admiral Farragut led his fleet past the terrible fire of forts defending Mobile in southwestern Alabama. He compelled the surrender of the gunboats and the iron-plated ram Tennessee, commanded by Commodore Buchanan. This victory closed the port of Mobile to blockade runners.

The Opening of the Mississippi River.

1. The object of **Grant's campaign in 1862** was to open up the Mississippi River, and to separate the States west of it from the Confederacy. In northwestern Tennessee were two forts, Fort Henry on the Tennessee River and Fort Donelson on the Cumberland River. Commodore Foote with his iron-clad gunboats captured Fort Henry in February. Grant, aided by Foote's gunboats, attacked Fort Donelson a week later, and after three days' bombardment, General Buckner had to surrender the fort and its garrison of 15,000.

Grant some weeks later fought a great battle at Shiloh or Pittsburg Landing, southwestern Tennessee, defeating the Confederates under General Albert Johnston.

2. **Island No. 10**, in Mississippi River, northwest of Tennessee, attacked by gunboats and later by land forces, surrendered to Foote. The gunboats then proceeded down the Mississippi and defeated the fleet at **Memphis**, which was then occupied by Union forces, giving the control of the river as far south as Memphis.

3. A little earlier that same year (April, 1862), **New Orleans** was captured by Admiral Farragut (Describe Battle of New Orleans, page 49).

4. Grant's great work in 1863 was to capture **Vicksburg**, in western Mississippi on the Mississippi River. Assisted by General Sherman, he defeated General Pemberton and General Joseph E. Johnston separately in several battles, and succeeded in shutting Pemberton up in Vicksburg.

The siege lasted six weeks. Finally, on July 4, 1863, Vicksburg surrendered, being unable to endure any longer the famine and the terrible Union bombardment.

5. When **Port Hudson** surrendered shortly after to General Banks, the whole Mississippi was opened, and entirely under the control of the North.

Attempts to Capture Richmond.

1. The Union forces under General McDowell began their march toward Richmond, but they reached only Manassas Junction in northern Virginia, in July, 1861, when they met the Confederates under General Beauregard. The Confederates, reinforced by General Joseph Johnston, utterly defeated the Union troops. General Thomas Jackson won his title of "Stonewall Jackson" in this battle. This battle is generally called the battle of **Bull Run**, from the small stream near by.

2. The object of **McClellan's campaign in 1862** was to capture Richmond. This campaign is sometimes called the Peninsular Campaign, because it was fought in the peninsula between the York and the James Rivers in southern Virginia. After capturing Yorktown and Norfolk, the Union army advanced to within seven miles of Richmond, producing a panic there. Instead of attacking the city at once, he waited for reinforcements under McDowell. General Jackson, in or-

der to prevent this reinforcement, raided the Shenandoah Valley in northern Virginia. This produced a panic at Washington, and McDowell was ordered to the Shenandoah Valley. Jackson retreated in safety, having accomplished his object.

General Robert E. Lee had meanwhile become the Confederate commander-in-chief. Jackson now joined Lee in attacking McClellan, beginning the Seven Days' Battles. After the battle of Mechanicsville, McClellan retreated toward the James River with Lee in pursuit, fighting all the way. On July 1, 1862, the battle of Malvern Hill was fought in which Lee was defeated. This ended the Seven Days' Battles. The whole campaign was a Union failure, as Richmond was not taken.

3. The second Battle of Bull Run was fought in 1862, shortly after McClellan's unsuccessful campaign. McClellan had been ordered to unite his forces with those of General Pope, but before he arrived, Lee and Jackson attacked and utterly routed Pope at Bull Run.

4. Grant's Campaign against Richmond.

Early in 1864, Grant was made commander-in-chief of the entire Union forces. He then began a campaign in Virginia with the object of capturing Richmond. Grant's army was almost twice the size of Lee's, but Lee had the advantage of position. The first great battle was the battle of the Wilderness in northeastern Virginia, the region being so called because of its dense forests. The battle lasted two days, with great loss to Lee and Grant, and the result was indecisive.

A few weeks later, the two armies fought at Cold Harbor, nine miles from Richmond. Here Grant was badly defeated by Lee.

Grant now moved to the James River and tried to capture Petersburg, a city twenty-three miles south of Richmond. Lee prevented its capture and Grant began the siege of the place, June, 1864. The greatest event of the siege during 1864 was the explosion on July 30 of the mine dug by Union soldiers under one of the enemy's forts. The Union forces rushed into this gap or chasm of nearly two hundred feet to take the city, but were driven back with great slaughter. Grant continued the siege steadily. On April 1, 1865, Sheridan, after a severe battle, drove Lee from Five Forks, twelve miles from Petersburg. Lee saw he could not hold Richmond much longer. On April 2, Grant made an attack along the whole line in front of Petersburg, and carried the works. That night the Confederate government and army evacuated Petersburg and Richmond, and on April 3, the Union troops entered them, after their long siege.

NOTE.—Lee surrendered to Grant on April 9, 1865, at Appomattox Court House, in southern Virginia.

Lee's Two Invasions.

1. When McClellan withdrew from Richmond, Lee went northward, and defeated Pope at the battle of Bull Run, in northern Virginia. He then advanced into Maryland, hoping to win that State for the Confederates. McClellan was given the Union command again, and attacked Lee and Jackson at **Antietam Creek**, a branch of the Potomac in southern Maryland, September, 1862, near Sharpsburg. The result was a Union success, but not a decided one. Lee, however, had to withdraw across the Potomac into Virginia.

2. In 1863, Lee invaded the North the second time. Leaving Virginia, he marched through Maryland into

Pennsylvania. General George C. Meade commanded the Union forces there. At **Gettysburg** in southern Pennsylvania, July 1, 1863, the Union forces met the Confederates, and began a terrible three days' battle. General Reynolds (Union) was killed in the first day's fight, and the defeated Union forces occupied Cemetery Ridge, where Meade with the greater part of his army joined them during the night.

The Confederates were stationed on Seminary Ridge. July 2, Lee sent General Longstreet to capture the hill, Little Round Top, but he was repulsed.

On the third day, July 3, Lee sent General Pickett about noon with 15,000 men to attack General Hancock on Cemetery Ridge. After fearful slaughter, the Confederates were defeated and the battle was over. Lee was forced to retreat into Virginia, ending the invasion.

Sherman's March to the Sea.

In 1864, while Grant was fighting Lee, in Virginia, General William T. Sherman was fighting General Johnston in Georgia.

The object of Sherman's campaign was to capture Atlanta, destroy the Confederate army in Georgia, and lay the region waste. After five battles in northwest Georgia, Johnston had to retire to Atlanta. The Confederate government then put Hood in the place of Johnston. After defeating Hood three times, Sherman seized Atlanta, September, 1864. This was an important capture, as nearly all the war supplies of the South were made in Atlanta's mills and foundries, which Sherman destroyed.

Thinking to draw Sherman out of Georgia, Hood invaded Tennessee, but Sherman refused to leave. In

November, Sherman began his march toward the sea. In November, Sherman began his march across Georgia, destroying railroads and supplies and laying waste the whole country for a month. In December, 1864, he captured Savannah. In 1865, he marched northward into South Carolina, and in February, seized and burned Columbia, its capital.

Charleston was then evacuated by the Confederates and seized by the Union forces. Sherman continued his march into North Carolina, and defeated Johnston at Bentonville in eastern North Carolina. About a month later, on learning of Lee's surrender, Johnston likewise surrendered.

The effect of Sherman's campaign was to destroy the resources of the South, and to conquer the Southern forces there.

The Results of the War.

The two great results of the Civil War were the abolition of slavery and the establishment of the supremacy of the National Government. The doctrine of State Rights could no longer be held, and the Constitution became the supreme law of the land.

Reconstruction.

By reconstruction, we mean readmitting the seceded States to the Union, and reorganizing their government. While Congress was not in session, President Johnson issued a Proclamation of pardon to the people of the seceded States, if they agreed to obey the Constitution. When conventions in the various seceded States ratified the Thirteenth Amendment, and repealed the secession ordinances, Johnson declared that these States were once more members of the Union. Congress on assembling declared that such

action was not sufficient to readmit these States, the Fourteenth Amendment was passed, by which the negroes were made citizens of the United States. This Amendment also declared that all who had broken their oath of allegiance to the United States by engaging in war against it, were ineligible to hold any state or national office.

Tennessee had been admitted in 1866, after ratifying the Fourteenth Amendment. Congress, in 1867, organized military governments for the remaining ten States, which were to continue in these States until they ratified the Fourteenth Amendment. In 1868, six States complied and were readmitted. In 1870, in Grant's administration, the remaining four seceded States, Virginia, Georgia, Mississippi and Texas, ratified the Thirteenth, Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments, and were readmitted to the Union.

Alabama Claims.

The Confederate cruiser, Alabama, was built in Liverpool, England, and its crew was mainly Englishmen. It was commanded by Captain Semmes, and did great damage to Union vessels, destroying between 1862 and 1864 over sixty vessels with their cargoes. In 1864, the Kearsarge, commanded by Captain Winslow of the Union navy, destroyed the Alabama in a great naval battle near Cherbourg, off the coast of north-western France. The depredations of the Alabama led to the Alabama claims. After the Civil War ended, United States demanded payment from England for the damages done to American commerce by the Alabama, as our government considered England was responsible, by having permitted the vessel to be built in and to be sent out from an English port. Commis-

sioners from both countries met at Washington, and in 1871, they signed the Treaty of Washington, by which it was agreed to refer the "Alabama Claims" to a board of arbitrators. This was to consist of five members, one being appointed by United States, one by England, one by Italy, one by Switzerland, and one by Brazil. The commission met in Geneva, Switzerland, in 1872, and their decision was that England should pay the United States \$15,500,000.

Philadelphia.

(a) **Settlement:**—William Penn had inherited from his father, Admiral Penn, a money claim on the English government which King Charles II. was glad to pay by granting, in 1681, a tract of land, called after the proprietor, Pennsylvania.

Penn came over the next year on the ship *Welcome*, and landed at New Castle. He soon went up the Delaware to Shackamaxon, where he made the famous treaty with the Indians under the elm-tree.

The site chosen for the city of Philadelphia was between the Delaware and the Schuylkill rivers. The nine streets that ran east and west were named for forest trees, such as Spruce, Pine, Chestnut, Sassafras (now Race Street), etc. The twenty-three running north and south in the tract between the Delaware and the Schuylkill were named numerically. High Street, now Market, was the chief street. The first winter, 1682-1683, saw few houses, and the people lived mainly in caves along the river front. From the first, however, the city grew rapidly, and before long became the great city of the colonies.

NOTE:—The old Treaty Elm was blown down in 1810, and a monument and park now mark the spot where it stood.

(b) **Early History.** Though the Quakers were the first settlers of Philadelphia, other religions and nationalities soon followed, attracted by the civil and religious freedom enjoyed there. Francis Daniel Pastorius with a company of Germans arrived in 1683. Pastorius was a distinguished scholar, knowing seven or eight languages. He and his followers settled **Germantown**, a suburb of Philadelphia. The people were linen weavers chiefly, though other trades were also followed. Thus, the first paper mill in America was established in 1690, near the Wissahickon, by William Rittinghuysen, a minister from Holland. Christoph Saur, of Germantown, printed the first German Bible in America in 1743, and he also published the first German newspaper.

These Germantown settlers were a very religious people, and were the first to suggest abolishing slavery, sending such a petition in 1688 to the Friends' Yearly Meeting.

Much attention was paid to **education** in Philadelphia, a school being opened the first year after its founding. Christopher Dock was the most famous of the early schoolmasters, teaching in Germantown for many years. He died in 1771, after a long and noble life, being found dead in the schoolhouse one night, in the attitude of prayer.

Higher education was also provided for, and from the Academy proposed by Franklin, grew the University of Pennsylvania.

Three **famous buildings** still standing in Philadelphia must be mentioned, since they are so closely connected with our history. **Christ Church**, on Second Street near Market, took the place of an earlier church,

and dates from 1727. The famous chime of bells cost £560. The steeple once held a crown, but in 1787, a bishop's miter with thirteen stars was put there. Washington worshipped here, as did Benjamin Franklin, Robert Morris, John Adams, Lafayette, and many other great men of the Revolution. A rector of Christ Church, Rev. Jacob Duché, opened the session of the First Continental Congress with prayer.

In Christ Church cemetery, at Fifth and Arch, lie buried the remains of Philadelphia's greatest citizen, Benjamin Franklin.

Carpenters' Hall is located in the rear of the south side of Chestnut Street, near Third Street. This building is famous as the meeting place of the First Continental Congress in 1774, in which sat Washington, Henry, Samuel Adams, John Adams, and other patriots. The first Bank of the United States was here from 1791 to 1797. Here also was the Second Bank of the United States, from 1817 for nearly five years.

Independence Hall, on the south side of Chestnut Street, between Fifth and Sixth, is Philadelphia's most famous building. Originally it was called the Statehouse, and in it hung the famous Liberty Bell with its well-known Biblical inscription, "Proclaim liberty throughout all the land unto all the inhabitants thereof."

In the Statehouse, the Second Continental Congress met, and passed Jefferson's immortal Declaration of Independence in 1776, and from then on, it became Independence Hall. Here the Constitution was framed by the Convention of 1787, establishing the new and glorious Union. Here Congress sat from 1790 to 1800, when Philadelphia was the national capital. The

Liberty Bell, which had announced by its notes the repeal of the Stamp Act in 1766, the adoption of the Declaration in 1776, the surrender of Cornwallis in 1781, and the establishment of the new government, tolled its last at the funeral of Chief Justice Marshall in 1835. To-day the whole Union venerates the silent but eloquent Liberty Bell.

Philadelphia's two greatest citizens were **Benjamin Franklin and Stephen Girard.**

Franklin, the poor Boston youth who landed here without money or friends when only seventeen, and who rose to become a leader, known the world over, is a name familiar to us all. (Give biography: see page 18.)

Stephen Girard, a French emigrant, reached Philadelphia as a young man in 1776, becoming there a grocer and wine bottler. He prospered by his skill and industry, establishing a fleet of merchant vessels known in every port, and becoming a millionaire.

He showed rare heroism during the yellow fever epidemic in Philadelphia in 1793, nursing the sick in person, and aiding in every way possible.

On the expiration of the charter of the United States bank, Girard took it, forming "The Bank of Stephen Girard," in 1812. He rescued the nation from ruin in 1814 by loaning about five million dollars to the almost bankrupt government, when no one else would take such a risk. He died in 1831, leaving the bulk of his immense fortune for a college for orphan boys, thus establishing one of Philadelphia's noblest charities.

NOTE:—Philadelphia to-day is the third city in the Union as regards population, having in it 1,290,000 people, according to the census of 1900. Its area is 129½ square miles. It is a great manufacturing city, noted for its locomotives, its carpets

and its machinery. In foreign commerce it ranks fourth of the United States cities. Its park, called Fairmount Park, covers over 3360 acres. The Zoological Garden, there, is the finest in America.

The new City Hall, with over 750 rooms, is one of the most costly public buildings in the world. When completed, the cost will probably be \$25,000,000. The tower of City Hall to the top of Penn's Statue is 547 feet high.

Government of Philadelphia.

Philadelphia has three departments in its government, legislative, executive, judicial.

The legislative or law-making department consists of the two branches of City Councils, Select and Common. Councilmen serve without pay, being elected by the people. There are (1904) forty-two members of Select Council, one from each ward, and one hundred and sixty-two members of Common Council. The head of the executive department is the Mayor, elected by the people for a term of four years. Under him are his four Directors—(1) the Director of Public Safety, having charge of the Fire and Police Bureaus, etc. (2) the Director of Supplies, having charge of buying materials for city use. (3) the Director of Public Works, having charge of the Bureaus of Water, Surveys, Street Cleaning, etc., and (4) the Director of Public Health and Charities, having charge of the Bureau of Health, almshouses, municipal hospitals, etc. These Directors are appointed by the Mayor.

The judicial department is composed of the various city judges and magistrates whose duty it is to interpret the law, and to conduct trials for violation of the law. These are elected by the people.

To attend to educational matters, each of the forty-two wards has its Sectional Board, elected by the people, and its Controller, appointed by the judges, the

forty-two controllers of the city making the Board of Education.

NOTE.—The elections for all National and State officers are held on the first Tuesday after the first Monday in November; for city officials the election is held on the third Tuesday in February. Voters must be male citizens of Pennsylvania and of the United States, who are twenty-one years old or over.

Notes on the Constitution.

Government is the organized means employed by a state or nation to preserve its own existence and to protect the rights of its people.

The **necessity of government** is easily seen. As men do not live alone, but in communities, some means are necessary to restrain the evil and to protect the good. If there were no government, everyone would do as he pleased, and no one would be secure in his rights and possessions. If persons could not be secured in the possession of their own property, all reward for industry and for honest work would end. Hence a government is absolutely necessary to secure peace, order, and prosperity.

The **constitution** of a nation is its fundamental laws. It describes the branches of the government and their powers, and serves as a basis for all future laws.

A **law** is a rule of conduct established by authority. There are four chief **forms or kinds of government**: Monarchical, Aristocratic, Democratic, Republican.

A **monarchical form** of government is one in which the chief power is vested in a ruler or monarch who usually inherits his office. The monarch may be called a king, a queen, an emperor, a czar, a mikado, etc.

An **absolute monarchy** is one in which the ruler has supreme power, making, executing, and interpreting the laws at will. Russia's czar, and Turkey's sultan

are absolute monarchs. The people of an absolute monarch are usually ignorant and uneducated.

A **limited or constitutional monarchy** is one in which the power of the monarch is limited by a constitution or body of laws. Germany's emperor, Japan's mikado, and England's king are rulers of limited monarchies. In a limited monarchy, the people are usually educated, enjoying freedom of speech, and freedom of religion.

An **aristocracy** is a form of government where the power is in the hands of a few men. Venice at one time was an aristocratic form of government. There is now no pure aristocratic form of government, but the aristocratic element exists in the upper classes or nobles in monarchies.

A **democratic** form of government is where the power is in the hands of the entire people. The "Town System of New England" was a pure democracy, all the people aiding in making the town laws. Such a form of government would only be possible with a small population, since a large population could not assemble together.

A **republican form of government or a republic** is a representative government. The people elect their officers or representatives, and these make and execute the laws for them.

The United States is a **democratic republic**. The people elect their officials, giving the democratic element. ~~These~~ officials represent the people, so the people act not directly, but through representatives, giving the republican or representative element.

The United States is also a combination of State and Federal governments,—each being a democratic

republic. The Federal government, through its legislative, executive, and judicial departments, attends to the affairs of the nation, such as war, finance, treaties, etc. Each State government, through its legislative, executive and judieial departments, attends to the affairs of that particular State.

The **Preamble** to the Constitution shows that our government is a government where the power is vested in the people themselves, since it says “we, the people of the United States,” establish this government.

The six purposes for which the government was established are also stated in the preamble. Those objects or purposes were “to form a more perfect union, to establish justice, to insure domestic tranquillity, to provide for the common defence, to promote the general welfare, and to secure the blessings of liberty.”

Definition of Terms and Phrases Used in the Constitution. From the Preamble:—“Insure domestic tranquillity,” secure peace at home. “Welfare,” prosperity. “Posterity,” descendants, future generations.

Article I. (The Legislative Department.)

Section I.—“Vested,” placed or put.

Section II.—“Electors,” voters. “Requisite,” necessary. “Most numerous,” largest. “Attained to,” reached. “Citizen,” a man, woman or child who enjoys the rights of a free person. “Apportioned,” assigned among, divided. “Enumeration,” counting the inhabitants. “Subsequent,” coming after, following.

NOTE:—After the Twelfth Census, in 1900, the number of members of the national House of Representatives was made 386, or 1 for every 193,291 persons. This is fixed by Congress.

By dividing 193,291 into the population of a State, we get the number of Representatives that State can send to Congress.

“Executive authority thereof,” the governor of the State. “Writ of election,” a paper, issued by a governor of a State, authorizing an election to be held on a particular day. “Speaker,” the presiding officer of the House of Representatives, who directs its actions, appoints committees, and regulates debate. He is a Representative, of course.

NOTE:—“Other officers” of the House are not members of the House. Among others, they include the chaplain, who opens each session with prayer, the clerks who keep the journal, etc., and the sergeant-at-arms, who preserves order at the command of the speaker. He does this by showing the mace, the symbol of authority. (This mace is a bundle of ebony rods, each with a spear head, a metal eagle projecting from the bundle.)

“Sole,” only. “Impeachment,” formal accusation against an official, charging him with some crime or offence.

Section III.—“In consequence of,” as the result of. “Expiration,” end, termination. “Resignation,” giving up an office before the end of the term of such office. “Recess of the Legislature,” the time when the two legislative bodies of a State are not in session. “Temporary,” not permanent, lasting only for a short time. “Tie,” an equality of votes. “Pro tempore,” for the time. “Oath,” a solemn declaration with an appeal to God for the truth of it. “Affirmation,” the solemn declaration that the truth will be told, made by those who refuse to take an oath. “Convicted,” found guilty. “Acquitted,” set free, declared not guilty. “Concurrence,” agreement.

(NOTE:—President Johnson was the only President ever impeached. He was acquitted.)

“Indictment,” a document drawn up by the district attorney, charging a person with a crime.

Section IV.—“Prescribed,” fixed, laid down by rule. “Regulations,” rules. “Assemble,” meet.

NOTE.—Every Congress lasts two years, its second or short session going from December to the fourth of March. The Fifty-eighth Congress began in 1903.

Section V.—“Constitute,” form, make. “Quorum,” a number sufficient to do business. “Majority,” a number greater than the half. (Note:—With 90 Senators, 46 would be a quorum.) “Proceedings,” actions. “Journal,” a book giving an account of the proceedings of a legislative body. “Publish,” make public. “Voting by yeas and nays” is a method of voting, in which the name of each member is called, and the person votes “yea” or “yes” if in favor of the measure, or votes “nay” or “no,” if opposed. “Adjourn,” to end a session for a time.

Section VI.—“Compensation,” pay. “Treason,” the crime of attempting to overthrow the government of one’s country. “Felony,” a crime punishable by death or imprisonment. “Breach of the peace,” disturbing the public peace by riot or by disorderly conduct. “Emolument,” salary, pay.

Section VII.—“Bill,” a proposed law. “Revenue,” the money which a government obtains by taxation. “Originate,” start, make a beginning. “Amendment,” an alteration or change in a bill or law. “Veto,” to refuse to sign a bill when passed by the legislative department. “Objections,” reasons against, reasons for opposing. “Reconsider,” consider again, take up again for debate. “Excepted,” excluded, not counted. “Resolution,” a formal statement of the will or opinion of a legislative body, as passed by a vote. “Disapproved,” not approved, not sanctioned.

Section VIII.—“Duties,” or “imposts,” in United States mean a tax on goods imported. “Excises,” taxes on goods made and used within the country. (Note:—The chief excise taxes in United States are on tobacco and on alcoholic liquors.) “Tax,” a sum of money levied on the property or the people of a country by the government. “Uniform,” not varying or changing. “Naturalization,” the process by which an alien becomes a citizen of United States. “Alien,” a foreigner living in a country, but not being a citizen of it. “Citizen”—“All persons born in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States.” “Bankrupt,” a person formally declared by law as unable to pay his debts.

(NOTE:—The Metric System of weights and measures is used by almost all nations except United States and England. Its meter, for long measure, is 39.37 inches. Its liter, for measuring fluids, is 2.113 pints. The kilogram, for weight, is about 2.2 pounds avoirdupois.)

“Counterfeiting,” the unlawful making of money, either coin or paper. “Securities,” government bonds. “Current coin,” coin in use or circulation. “Patent,” a document giving an inventor the exclusive right to an invention. A patent extends for 17 years. “Copyright,” a document giving authors or their assignees the sole privilege of publishing their works. “Militia,” the citizens enrolled for military instruction who are engaged as soldiers only in time of actual war. “Suppress,” to put down, to subdue. “Insurrection,” revolt. “Repel,” drive back, repulse. “Seat of government,” the capital. “Exercise exclusive legislation,” have full power over. “Magazine,” a place for

storing military supplies. "Arsenal," a place where military equipments are made and stored.

"Habeas Corpus," an order from a judge, commanding the person imprisoned to be brought before the judge to inquire as to the justice of the imprisonment. It protects from unjust imprisonment.

NOTE:—An *exclusive* power of the Senate is a power possessed only by the Senate. A *concurrent* power of the Senate is the power it possesses in connection with the House of Representatives to make general laws.

Article II. (The Executive Department.)

"Presidential Elector," a person elected to vote for the President. "Ballot," a ticket used in voting, the act of voting. "Transmit," send. "Not exceeding three," not more than three. "Representation from each State," the entire number of Representatives from that State. "Shall devolve upon," shall be handed over to. "Constitutionally ineligible," not qualified according to the Constitution. "Eligible," possessing the necessary qualification.

(NOTE:—Jefferson in 1800 and John Quincy Adams in 1824 were elected Presidents by the House of Representatives.)

"Electoral College," all the Presidential electors together. "Natural-born citizen," a person born a citizen, not a naturalized citizen. "Inability to discharge the powers and duties," not able to do the work. "Diminished," made less.

(NOTE:—Tyler, Fillmore, Johnson, Arthur and Roosevelt are the Vice-Presidents who succeeded to the Presidency.)

Section II.—"Executive departments," the State Department, the Treasury Department, the War Department, the Navy Department, the Post-Office Department, etc.

The heads of these departments form the President's Cabinet. The Cabinet meets in the White House.

(1) The **Secretary of State** is the head of our ambassadors and consuls, and is the only officer who communicates with foreign governments in the name of the President. He has much to do with making treaties.

(2) The **Secretary of the Treasury** takes charge of the money matters of the government. His department receives the money from Federal taxes, and pays out sums as appropriated by Congress. Its officers collect the duties on imports and also the internal revenue from taxes on spirits and tobacco. It has charge of the Mints.

(3) The **War Department** has charge of the army and of United States Military Academy at West Point.

(4) The **Attorney-General** gives the President any legal advice needed, and also represents the United States in any law-suits in which it is a party.

(5) The **Postmaster-General** is head of the department having charge of the mails.

(6) The **Secretary of the Navy** has charge of all war vessels with their officers and men. His department has charge of the United States Naval Academy at Annapolis, of dock-yards, etc.

(7) The **Department of the Interior** controls Indian affairs, pensions, patents, copyrights, the census, etc.

(8) The **Secretary of Agriculture** promotes agricultural interests. The Weather Bureau is in his department.

(9) The **Secretary of Commerce and Labor** promotes the interests of labor and trade. **Coast Surveys** are in charge of his department.

“**Reprieve**,” a temporary suspension of a sentence, especially that of death. “**Treaty**,” an agreement between two or more nations. “**Nominate**,” name or select for an office. “**Ambassador**,” a minister of the highest rank sent to represent his country at a foreign court. “**Minister**,” one of lower rank than an ambassador, representing his government at a foreign capital. “**Consul**,” a person sent to a foreign city to look after the commercial affairs of his government. “**Inferior**,” lower in rank. “**Commission**,” a document stating that the person receiving it has been appointed to the public position therein named. “**Expire**,” end.

Section III.—“**State**,” condition. “**Recommend** to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient,” call their attention to the laws needing to be passed by them. “**Convene**,” call together. “**Shall commission**,” shall issue a commission to.

NOTE:—A civil power is a power not a military power.

Article III. (Judicial Department.)

Note:—The **Supreme Court**, which is established by the Constitution, has nine judges. It hears appeals from lower courts, and its decision is final.

The United States is divided into nine parts called circuits. Each circuit has a Federal court called a **Circuit Court**. These deal with civil cases arising under the laws of United States.

The United States is also divided into sixty-five parts, each of which has a Federal court called a

District Court. This deals with crimes against Federal laws, as counterfeiting, robbing the mails, etc.

Article IV. (Relations between State and Nation.)

Section III.—“Jurisdiction,” authority to govern; also, the limits within which a government or court has authority. “Within the jurisdiction of any other State,” within the region governed by that State. “Junction,” joining. “Concerned,” affected, connected with the affair. “State,” a division of the Union, governed by its inhabitants. “Territory,” a part of the Union under the control of the Federal Government. Its governor, judges, and the other officers are appointed by the President with the consent of the Senate. Its Legislature is elected by the people of the Territory. Each Territory may send a delegate to the House of Representatives who looks after its interests, but cannot vote.

(NOTE:—To become a State, a Territory, after receiving permission by an Act of Congress, adopts a State Constitution. If this is approved by Congress, a bill is passed by Congress, and signed by the President, admitting the Territory as a State.)

Section IV.—“Guarantee,” secure. “Republican,” representative. “Domestic violence,” riots within the State.

Article V. (Amending the Constitution.)

“Deem,” regard, think. “Propose,” offer, bring forward. “Convention,” an assembly of delegates. “Valid,” legal. “To all intents and purposes,” fully, entirely. “Ratified,” approved, sanctioned, agreed to. “Prior to,” before. “Shall be deprived of,” shall have taken away, shall lose. “Suffrage,” vote.

Article VI. (Federal Supremacy.)

“In pursuance thereof,” according to it. “Supreme,” highest in authority. “To the contrary,” different from, opposite.

Amendment I. (Civil and Religious Liberty.)

“Respecting,” regarding, concerning. “Prohibiting,” forbidding, preventing. “Abridging,” cutting off, diminishing. “Freedom of speech,” the right to say what one pleases, subject only to the abuse of that liberty. “Freedom of the press,” the right of a newspaper to print anything it chooses, subject only to the abuse of that liberty. In Russia, the newspapers can say only what the Government wishes them to say. “Redress,” remedy, correction. “Grievances,” wrongs done by injustice, tyranny, etc.

NOTE.—Another personal right guaranteed by the Constitution is that of trial by jury.

A **grand jury** generally consists of twenty-three men, and a majority of these must agree before an indictment is made against a person suspected of crime. This **indictment** is a written accusation, charging a person with the commission of a crime, indorsed by the foreman of the grand jury with the words “A true bill.”.

The trial of the person is by a **petit jury**, consisting of twelve impartial men. It takes place in court, a judge presiding. The accused has the right to counsel to defend him, such being furnished by the government if necessary. The verdict of the jury must be unanimous.

Crimes committed in the army or navy are tried by **court-martial**. This is a court composed of army or navy officers.

Amendment XIII. (Abolition of Slavery.)

“Involuntary,” compulsory, not voluntary. “Servitude,” slavery. “Subject to their jurisdiction,” under their authority.

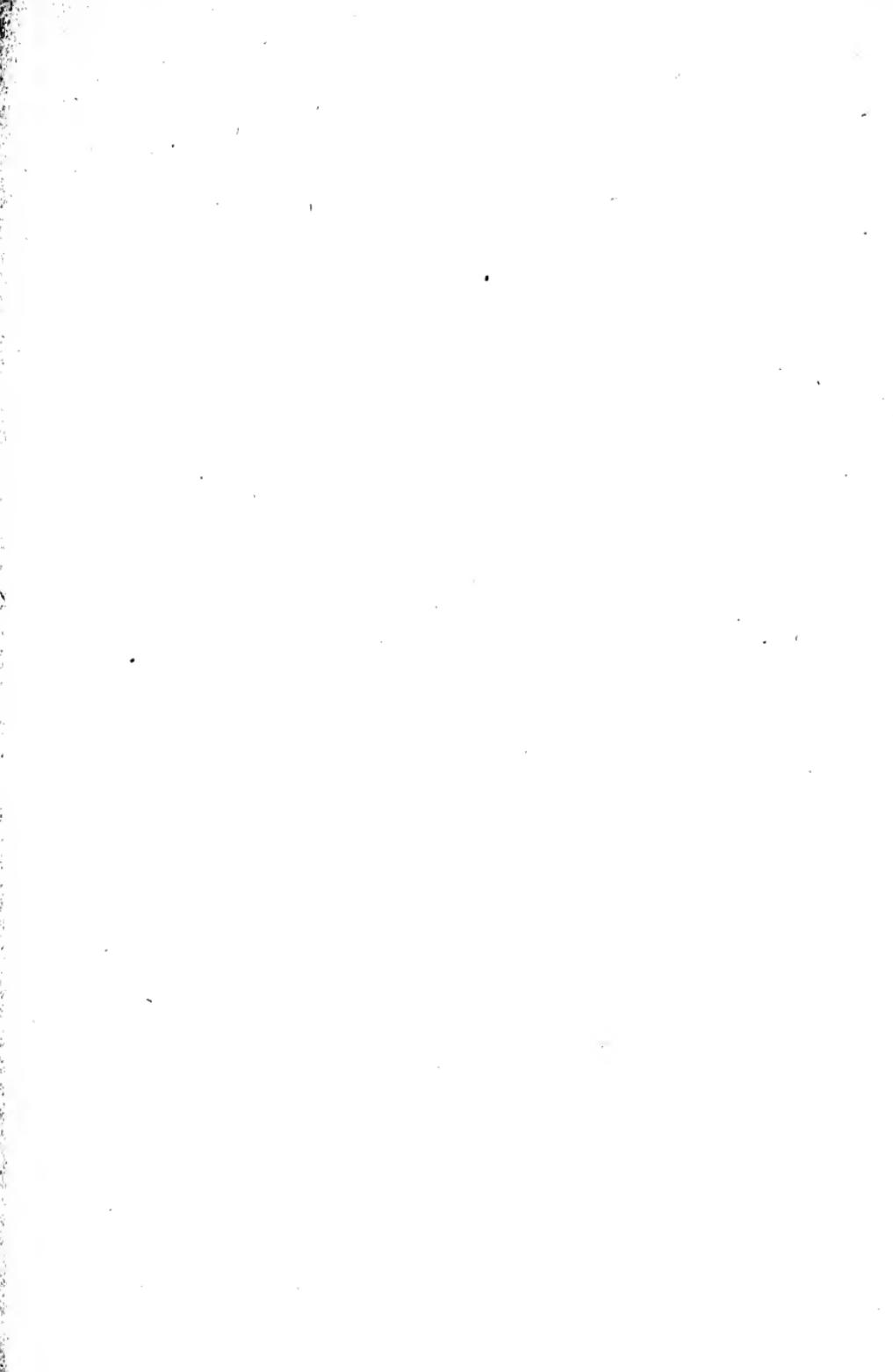
Amendment XIV. (Citizenship.)

“Immunities,” special privileges or rights.

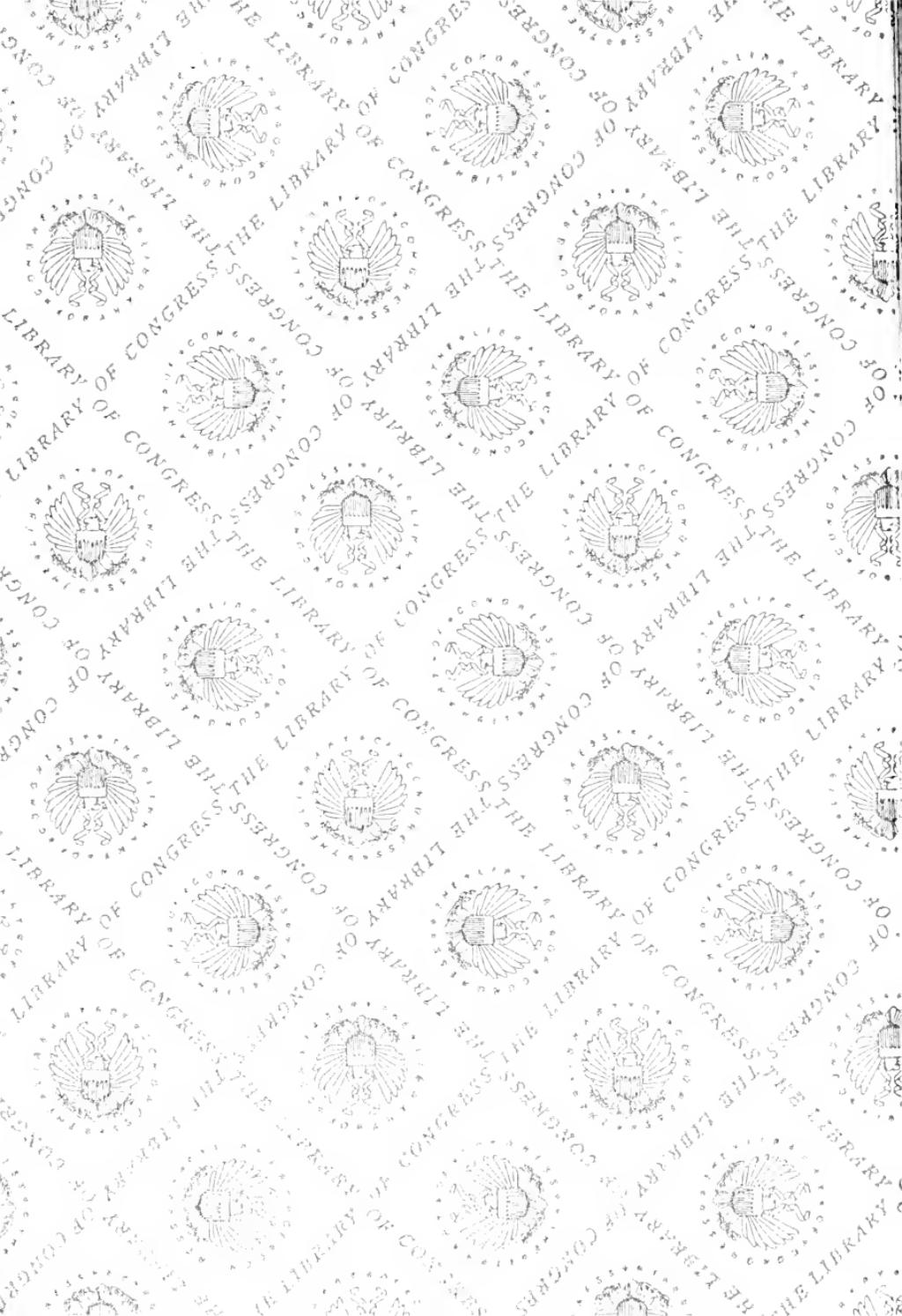
Amendment XV. (Voting.)

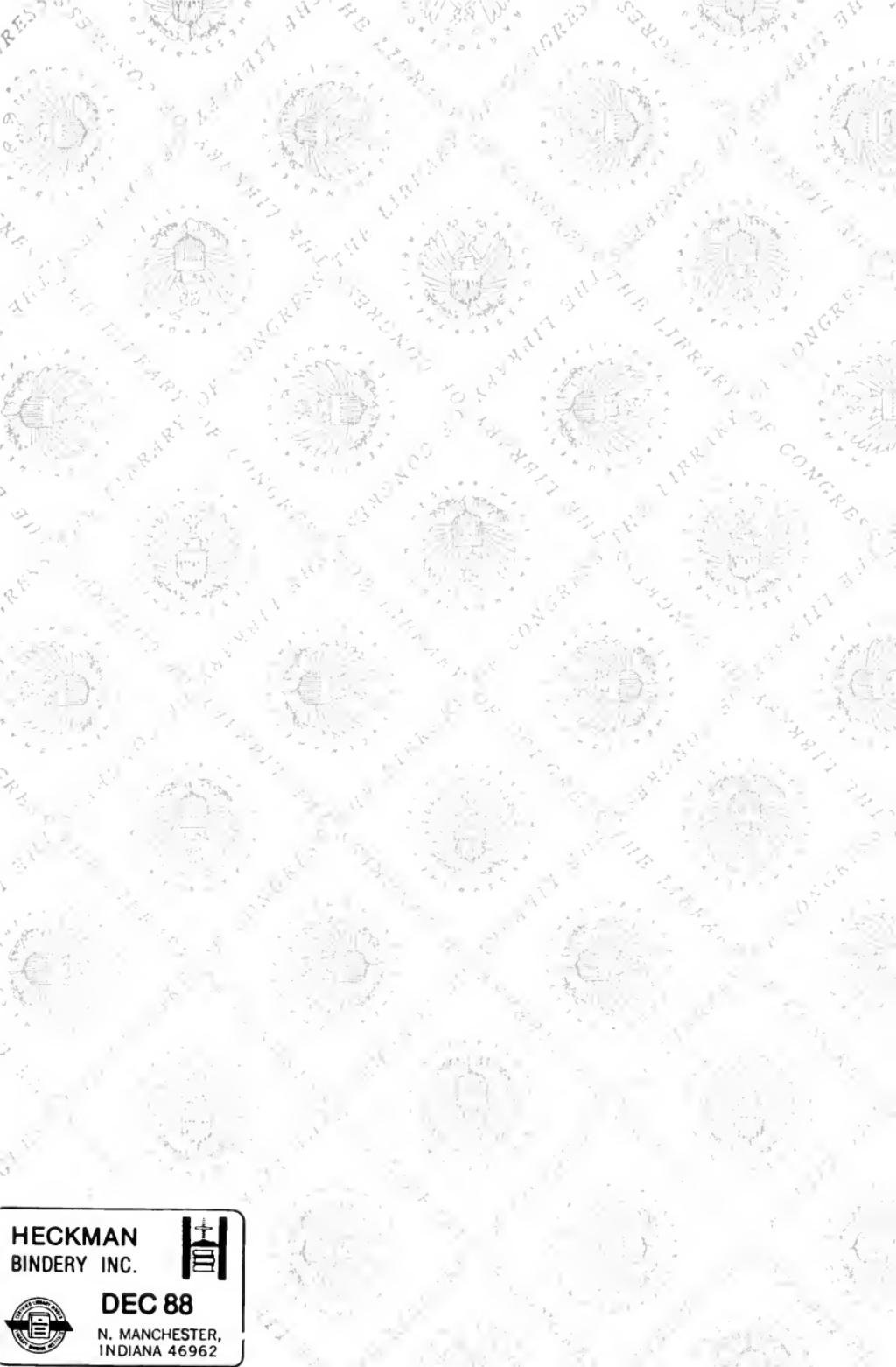
“Previous,” former.





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DEC 88

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